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Distribution of Workers by Hourly
and Weekly Earnings

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Hours and Earnings in Nonferrous-Metals Industry

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

***** + HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR + *****

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This Issue in Brief

Housing for war workers.

The Federal Government has under way a \$1,300,000,000 program for housing war workers. In May 1942 the public war housing program called for 322,700 regular family dwelling units, 18,100 trailers and portable houses, and 58,200 dormitory units in projects in 43 States and the District of Columbia. Approximately half of these units were under construction contract or completed in May. The public program has been designed to supplement private building, which has supplied the major part of the new housing in critical areas. War workers are eligible for tenancy in public war housing projects, regardless of income, but civilians who can afford private housing are not accepted as public tenants in areas where private enterprise is providing an adequate supply of houses at fair rentals. Page 1257.

Distribution of workers by hourly and weekly earnings.

Half of the workers in manufacturing industries were earning \$30 a week or more at the close of 1941. In the war industries alone, earnings were higher, half of the workers therein earning at least \$37 a week. Detailed distribution of both weekly and hourly earnings are given in an article on page 1278.

Labor aspects of the Chicago milk industry.

The growing tendency in certain distributive trades to replace employees, on a wage or salary basis, by independent outside salesmen and commission men has possibilities of serious labor and social effects. This is strikingly indicated in a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the milk distribution system in Chicago, from which it appears that the vendors sold milk at a lower price than that received by the employed drivers but that the weekly incomes of the vendors were considerably below the incomes of the employed drivers. Also, the vendor system constituted a serious threat to the drivers' union. Page 1283.

Labor regulations of Hawaiian military government.

The Military Governor of Hawaii, appointed immediately after the attack on Pearl Harbor, issued orders regulating the wage scales, hours of labor, and certain other employment conditions on work done for Army and Navy agencies. The regulations superseded existing territorial regulations and practices but were not to be construed as superseding the Federal Fair Labor Standards or the Public Contracts Acts. Page 1323.

Earnings in the mining machinery industry.

Average hourly earnings in the mining machinery and equipment industry rose from 66.6 cents in August 1939 to 87.8 cents in February-March 1942. The workweek at the latter date averaged 47 hours. There were marked variations in earnings levels between large and small plants. Occupational rates ranged from 52.7 cents per hour for general laborers to \$1.116 for class A working foremen. Page 1367.

Earnings in nonferrous-metal industry.

Hourly earnings in the nonferrous-metal mining and milling industry in August 1941 varied from 61.2 cents to 77.4 cents, the average for all branches being 74.5 cents, excluding overtime payments. By regions, the variations were from 77.2 cents per hour in the West to as low as 47.9 in Michigan. Page 1374.

The I. L. O. plans for post-war reconstruction.

In spite of war conditions the Emergency Committee of the International Labor Organization met in London in April, with representatives from the United States, Great Britain, Canada, India, Netherlands, and Mexico in attendance. The purpose of the meeting was to devise ways and means for equipping the International Labor Organization to play the part in post-war reconstruction called for by the New York meeting in November 1941. Page 1320.

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR JUNE 1942

HOUSING FOR WAR WORKERS

By KATHRYN R. MURPHY, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*¹

Summary

THE war housing program was started in the summer of 1940 to provide adequate shelter in areas of rapidly expanding war activities for the thousands of incoming workers in war industries and for families of enlisted men in the Army and Navy. By May 1942 more than \$1,334,000,000 had been authorized for Federally financed homes for war workers. The public program on May 1 called for 322,700 regular family-dwelling units, 18,100 trailers and portable houses, and 58,200 dormitory units in Federal projects in 43 States and the District of Columbia. This included some units for which funds were not yet available. Approximately half of the units were under construction contract or completed in May.

The Government has relied on private enterprise to provide a large part of the war housing in areas where it has appeared likely that additional housing would be needed after the war. To encourage the participation of private enterprise in the war housing program, a system of granting priorities assistance in obtaining scarce building materials was adopted and terms were liberalized for FHA-insured loans on certain types of housing in critical areas. Although assistance under both of these plans was restricted to homes built in critical areas, the occupancy of privately financed units has not been restricted to war workers as has been the case with units in public projects. Consequently, it is difficult to determine the actual amount of housing provided for war workers by private capital. It has been estimated, however, that 450,000 privately financed homes were started in war areas in 1941 and 350,000 in 1940. Since these estimates cover homes in all cost classes, they include many beyond the financial reach of war workers. Moreover, large numbers of the homes were in areas where war activities had not yet caused serious housing shortages.

War workers are eligible for tenancy in public housing projects regardless of income, but civilian workers in income groups which can be adequately housed at fair rentals by private enterprise are not accepted as public tenants if private enterprise is meeting the need.

Early in March 1942 almost two-fifths of the regular family units programmed at that time for public housing projects in the continental United States were available for occupancy. Families had moved

¹ Prepared in the Division of Construction and Public Employment, Herman B. Byer, chief.

into or had leased 85 percent of those available. In 11 of the 21 localities with the largest public programs, the family units were at least 98 percent occupied and there were long waiting lists of eligible applicants. On the other hand, there were 21 localities with smaller public programs in which less than half of the available family units were occupied in March. Ninety-five percent of all trailers and portable houses and 90 percent of the dormitory accommodations available in March were occupied.

Most of the Federally financed war homes have been rented on a month-to-month basis. The Mutual Home Ownership Plan, which combines the advantages of home ownership with the flexibility of a rental system, is in operation in a few public projects. Available information on the tenure of privately financed homes in critical areas indicates that early in March 1942 the number being built for sale far exceeded the number to be rented.

From a technical standpoint the outstanding feature of the war housing program has been the use of the demountable or high-salvage-value house. This is a house composed of large sections—such as floor, roof, and wall panels—which are assembled in such a way that they can be taken apart and reassembled at a new site with a minimum loss of material and effort. Such houses are looked upon as the means of preventing the creation of costly "ghost towns" after the war emergency has passed.

Special requirements in a few localities have made large apartment houses necessary, but single-family houses have in general predominated in the public war housing program. Units in twin and row houses have outnumbered detached units.

Effect of War Migration on Housing

Manning the machinery for war production has resulted in mass movements of workers and their families. Although war requirements cover a wide range of products, a few, such as aircraft, munitions, and ships, are of paramount importance. Consequently, the areas where these are produced have been the focal points for war migration.

Expansion of the aircraft industry in southern California has made San Diego an outstanding example of such an area. A WPA survey showed that early in December 1941 there were 27,900 civilian workers living in San Diego, who had moved there from outside the county after October 1, 1940. Two thousand more had moved into 4 neighboring cities. Family members accompanying the workers brought the total number of migrants in the 5 cities to 59,900, or about 26 percent of the 1940 population of the area. Since many workers had come without their families, additional migrants were expected when the families could be reunited.

Although San Diego is an extreme example of an area overcrowded with war workers, it by no means represents an isolated case. By May 1942 there were 410 localities throughout the country where the actual or anticipated increase in population appeared so great that, despite the shortages of building materials, priorities assistance was made available to builders who would construct privately financed housing for war workers.

To measure the amount of war migration on a country-wide basis is obviously a difficult task, partly because the factors governing the

volume of migration are constantly changing. Increased appropriations for war materials and the absorption of larger numbers of men into military service expand the need. On the other hand, "freezing" orders issued for more and more items of civilian consumption and the conversion of additional plants to war production, together with the increasing employment of women in war industries, operate in the opposite direction. Early in the fall of 1941 the Bureau of Employment Security estimated that an influx of 800,000 to 1,000,000 workers would be required to supply the need for industrial workers. Their dependents would bring the total of defense migrants to 1,600,000 or 2,000,000.² Current plans for housing are being made in terms of a need for about 1,600,000 new war workers who are expected to move into industrial areas during the fiscal year 1942-43.

The large-scale shifting of population to defense areas had two immediate effects: Critical housing shortages developed, and rents started rising. WPA surveys of 287 key areas indicated that in 1941 residential vacancies in more than nine-tenths of them were below 5 percent. Critical housing shortages were found in nearly two-fifths of the areas, where the gross vacancy rate was less than 2 percent of the total dwellings. In most of the war areas surveyed, dwelling units in good condition and for rent comprised less than half of the vacancies. Moreover, large numbers of units counted as habitable rental vacancies were under construction and were not available for immediate occupancy. The nonrental vacancies usually were for sale or were unfit for use.

Complaints of high rentals, particularly in areas near military establishments, small industrial communities, and other small communities, prompted the Office of Price Administration to request the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the WPA to make periodic surveys to maintain a check of the effect of the war on residential rents.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of 98 selected areas revealed that, without exception, the index of rents for homes in each of these areas was higher in the winter of 1941-42 than it had been in October 1939. Furthermore, the rental increases were more numerous and proportionately larger on homes renting for less than \$30 a month than on the more expensive homes. Rents had also risen to some extent in each of the 34 large cities for which the Bureau regularly collects information for its index of cost of living.

In 114 of the 115 war areas surveyed by the WPA, the level of rents was higher in the fall and early winter of 1941 than it had been in March or September 1940. The rates of increase for family dwelling units varied from 1 percent or less in Baton Rouge, La., Gallipolis, Ohio, and Newport, R. I., to more than 90 percent in Starke, Fla., and Leesville, La. In approximately half of the cities surveyed, the average tenant was paying at least 8 percent more for his dwelling late in 1941 than he was before the war production program got under way.

Legislation and Orders Affecting War Housing

Threats of delay in the war program for lack of housing, and memories of the flu epidemic accompanying the overcrowded con-

² National Defense Migration. First Interim Report of the Select Committee Investigating National Defense Migration, House of Representatives (77 Cong., 1st sess.), Pursuant to H. Res. 113, October 1941 (p. 6).

ditions of World War I, prompted Federal authorities to make a two-fold attack on the housing problem. Federal funds were allocated for a public war housing program and steps were taken to encourage private enterprise to build homes for war workers.

The national defense program was inaugurated in the latter part of May 1940, and on June 28 the powers of the United States Housing Authority were broadened to enable it to cooperate with the Army and Navy in providing housing for families of enlisted men and civilian workers at naval or military reservations, posts, or bases, and in industrial establishments engaged in defense activities. Shortly thereafter, on July 18, 1940, the Office of the Defense Housing Coordinator was created by the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense, and the Defense Housing Coordinator was given the responsibility of planning and carrying out the defense housing program through private industry and the several Federal agencies concerned with housing.³

By May 1942 more than \$1,334,000,000 of Federal funds had been earmarked for public housing projects for war workers and military personnel. The authorizations for these funds are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Federal Funds Appropriated or Authorized for Public War Housing Projects, May 1942

Authorization	Date act approved or allocation made	Amount appropriated or authorized	Purpose
Public, No. 671, 76th Cong.	June 28, 1940	¹ \$32,330,987	Homes for families of enlisted men, field civilian workers of War and Navy Departments, and workers in private war industries.
USHA converted low-rental projects. ²		202,000,000	War workers.
Presidential allocation from emergency funds.	Aug. 23, 1940	³ 60,000,000	To provide homes in areas where need was not otherwise being met.
Public, No. 781, 76th Cong.	Sept. 9, 1940	⁴ 100,000,000	Same as Public, No. 671.
Public, No. 849, 76th Cong. (Lanham Act).	Oct. 14, 1940	⁵ 140,000,000	Do.
Amended by Public, No. 42, 77th Cong.	Apr. 29, 1941	150,000,000	Do.
Amended by Public, No. 409, 77th Cong.	Jan. 21, 1942	300,000,000	Same as Public, No. 671, and also for single persons in war activities and homes for families of officers of 3 lower grades of Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard.
Amended by Public, No. 522, 77th Cong.	Apr. 10, 1942	⁶ 30,000,000	Housing (including living quarters for single persons and for families) for Federal employees in or near the District of Columbia.
Public, No. 9, 77th Cong.	Mar. 1, 1941	5,000,000	Temporary shelter in localities where impractical to build under provisions of Lanham or other acts.
Public, No. 73, 77th Cong.	May 24, 1941	15,000,000	Do.
Public, No. 353, 77th Cong.	Dec. 17, 1941	300,000,000	Do.
Total authorized.....		1,334,330,987	

¹ The act did not specify the amount to be expended, but stated: "Sec. 205. The Authority (USHA) may use for the purposes of this title any of the funds or authorizations heretofore or hereafter made available to it"

² Projects for which priorities assistance has been granted on the condition that they be reserved for war workers.

³ From his emergency funds the President allocated \$10,000,000 to the Federal Loan Administrator who formed the Defense Homes Corporation to use these funds for equity capital for defense housing projects, the additional money required coming from RFC funds.

⁴ \$44,600,000 was transferred to be expended under the provisions of Public, No. 849, 76th Cong.

⁵ Excludes \$10,000,000 used to reimburse the President's emergency funds for amounts previously made available for Defense Homes Corporation. (See note 3.)

⁶ Funds for the housing authorized by this act have not been appropriated when this article went to press. *This amount is therefore subject to revision.

⁷ The activities and personnel of this office were subsequently taken over by the Division of Defense Housing Coordination which was established within the Office of Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President by Executive order on January 11, 1941. When the National Housing Agency was created by Executive order on Feb. 24, 1942, it took over the work being done in the Division of Defense Housing Coordination.

To stimulate the participation of private industry in the defense-housing program, the terms for obtaining FHA-insured loans were liberalized for dwellings to be built in areas where housing shortages were threatening to impede the defense program. The new terms were authorized by an amendment (referred to as title VI) to the National Housing Act. As approved on March 28, 1941, this amendment limited the amount of mortgages insurable under title VI to \$100,000,000, but the amount was raised to \$300,000,000 by an amendment approved on September 2, 1941.⁴

The plan to grant priorities assistance for obtaining scarce building materials was another method of inducing private enterprise to build houses for war workers in preference to other residential construction. The operation of this plan, which became effective on September 22, 1941, was restricted to selected localities designated as defense-housing critical areas. To qualify for priorities assistance, a private project had to be within reasonable commuting distance of places of employment in any of the critical areas and be suitable for workers in war activities. The maximum selling price for individual dwelling units was set at \$6,000 and the shelter rental was not to exceed \$50 per month.

The order implementing the priorities-assistance plan did not preclude other private residential construction if the builders could obtain materials without priorities assistance. However, increasingly severe shortages of materials necessitated more drastic curtailment of construction. The War Production Board consequently issued an order on April 9, 1942, which provided that no residential construction, except maintenance and repair work, could be started without its permission if the estimated cost was \$500 or more. This order was designed to prevent new private residential construction from being started except in priority areas.

Size of War Housing Program

The public housing program for the continental United States on May 1, 1942, called for 322,700 stationary family units, 18,100 trailers and portable houses, and 58,200 dormitory units, in 43 States and the District of Columbia.⁵ More actual construction remained to be done, however, than had been completed by May. As can be seen from table 2, the stationary family units completed or under contract formed only about half of those programmed. Little more than one-fourth of these units were finished.

TABLE 2.—Public War Housing Program for Continental United States, May 1942¹

Type of accommodation	Number of units—		Percent of programmed units under construction contract or completed
	Programmed ²	Under construction, including those completed	
Stationary family dwelling units.....	322,721	164,503	51.0
Trailers and portable houses.....	18,090	12,318	68.1
Dormitory units.....	58,221	17,782	30.5

¹ Compiled from National Housing Agency, Locality Construction Table, May 1, 1942.

² Projects for which Administrator's approval has been obtained or Presidential finding made.

⁴ Public, Nos. 24 and 248, 77th Cong. Public, No. 559, 77th Cong., approved by the President on May 25, 1942, raised the amount of mortgages insurable under title VI to \$800,000,000.

⁵ Information on projects outside the continental United States is considered confidential and is not included in the tables and discussion which follow.

PARTICIPATION BY PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

From the inception of the war housing program, it was assumed that private enterprise would provide the major part of the housing required in critical areas. Public housing was to be provided only where the nature of the housing demand was such as to offer little incentive for private builders.

It is difficult to determine quantitatively how effective private enterprise has been in meeting the housing needs of war workers. It has been estimated that private builders provided 450,000 dwelling units in war areas in 1941 and 350,000 in 1940.⁶ However, many of these homes were in areas where war activities had not expanded sufficiently to cause serious housing shortages. Furthermore, results of the defense housing survey for 93 areas showed that the permit valuation for over two-fifths of the units to be built by private builders in these areas during 1940 and 1941 was \$4,000 or more.⁷ Since a permit valuation of \$4,000 is generally regarded as roughly equivalent to a cost price of \$5,600, this survey would indicate that large numbers of the privately financed homes were beyond the financial reach of the majority of war workers. An occupancy survey of new privately financed homes in the Bridgeport, Conn., area revealed that 36 percent of the new homes were occupied by households with a member of the family or a roomer employed in a "defense" industry.⁸ Obviously, it cannot be assumed that the findings in one area are typical of the situation throughout the country. To give a more complete picture of the effect of new private construction on the supply of housing for war workers in this area, a follow-up survey is being made in Bridgeport to determine how many of the homes vacated by families moving into the new dwellings are now housing war workers. In some areas private enterprise has provided practically all of the new housing. This has been the case in Los Angeles where the supply of new privately built units has been sufficient to prevent all but a very small increase in rents despite a great influx of war workers.

The number of applications for priorities assistance approved by the War Production Board is another indication of the volume of new privately financed housing in critical areas. From the time the priorities-assistance order became effective, on September 22, 1941, until the end of February 1942 applications for over 138,000 dwelling units had been approved by WPB and received by the National Housing Agency.⁹ That too few of the finished units were being occupied by war workers is indicated by a recommendation made by the War Production Board Special Housing Committee early in March 1942. This committee unanimously recommended that one of the conditions for the granting of priorities for 200,000 additional privately financed units should be that war workers should be given exclusive preference for all such housing for a period of at least 30 days after the house was completed.

⁶ These totals include homes financed with FHA-insured loans. The estimates are preliminary and would change upon redefinition of the areas covered. See Monthly Labor Review, May 1942 (p. 1145): New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1940 and 1941.

⁷ See Monthly Labor Review, May 1942 (p. 1153): New Dwelling Units in Selected Defense Areas, 1940 and 1941.

⁸ See Monthly Labor Review, May 1942 (p. 1073): Occupancy of Privately Financed Houses in Bridgeport. For purposes of this survey only industries known to be entirely or almost entirely engaged in defense production were counted as defense industries.

⁹ National Housing Agency, Number of Family Dwelling Units Covered by Applications for Priorities Assistance Approved by the WPB and Received by the NHA During the Period September 22, 1941-February 28, 1942.

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Workers Eligible for Public Housing

The first concern of the war housing program has been to provide housing for incoming war workers and their families, at prices and on terms within their reach. The early war housing legislation¹⁰ specified that housing was to be provided for families of regular Army and Navy enlisted personnel, civilian workers and their families in Army and Navy establishments, and workers in war industries. An amendment to the Lanham Act widened the coverage to permit the three lowest grades of commissioned officers of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard to occupy the homes.¹¹ The eligible civilian workers of the Army and Navy are employed for the most part in the Government's arsenals, navy yards, powder plants, ordnance works, and ordnance depots. Shipyards and plants making guns, ammunition, machines and tools, telephone and radio equipment, airplanes, and airplane parts are among the major categories of private war industries.

The influx of Federal workers to the Washington, D. C., area created an acute shortage of housing which could be relieved only to a minor degree under the early legislation. Workers in military and naval establishments were eligible for homes built under the Lanham Act, but the thousands of new office workers in Federal agencies were not. Because of the gravity of the situation in Washington, this act was amended to provide specifically for Federal employees in the District of Columbia.¹²

Certain USHA projects, in addition to those coming under Public Act No. 671, were granted priorities assistance on the condition that they be reserved for war workers. Other legislation or allocations of funds for Federally financed war housing did not specify the persons eligible for the housing. The funds provided by Public Act No. 9 and its amendments were to be used to provide temporary shelter in localities where war activities had created housing shortages but where it was not practicable to meet the emergency need under the Lanham or other acts or through private enterprise. The Defense Homes Corporation was to assist in providing housing in areas of extensive building and manufacturing where it seemed probable that the housing would constitute a permanent part of the community.

SELECTION OF TENANTS

Selection of individual tenants in projects constructed under the Lanham Act is handled through the local manager of each housing project.¹³ Families are eligible for tenancy regardless of income, but civilian families with incomes sufficient to enable them to rent privately owned dwellings are not accepted as tenants of public projects in areas where private enterprise is meeting their needs. In numerous localities private real estate interests have been unwilling to risk investment in rental houses to meet war needs. Under such circumstances families in the higher-income groups may become tenants of public war housing projects, but only until private industry supplies adequate housing at fair rentals.

¹⁰ Public, Nos. 671, 781, and 849 (Lanham Act), 76th Cong.

¹¹ Public, No. 409, 77th Cong.

¹² Public, No. 522, 77th Cong.

¹³ The following discussion of tenant selection refers particularly to procedures followed on projects constructed under the Lanham Act and is based on *Manual for Tenant Selection and Renting in Defense Housing Developments*, prepared by the Division of Defense Housing, Federal Works Agency, November 1941.

In projects to be occupied by industrial workers the local housing manager is responsible for selecting the tenants. Applicants are classified as eligible if the principal wage earner of the family is employed or about to be employed in a designated war industry. For this reason, all applications must contain a certification by the personnel officer of the plant with reference to the applicant's current or prospective employment. Unless specifically instructed otherwise, the housing manager observes the following order of preference in selecting tenants for projects serving industrial workers:

1. Applicants living in trailers or other temporary shelter.
2. Applicants desiring to bring families from domiciles elsewhere.
3. Applicants whose domiciles are beyond reasonable commuting distance.
4. Applicants living under doubled-up or overcrowded conditions.
5. Applicants evicted by landlords.
6. Applicants living under substandard housing conditions.
7. Applicants with excessive rent increases.
8. Newly married couples wishing to establish their own households.

The local manager may waive these priorities in extraordinary individual instances where the applicant's occupation or skill is particularly vital to the local war production program, or when for some other reason such a measure seems essential. Furthermore, if difficulty is encountered in obtaining a sufficient number of eligible applicants to fill a project completely, the housing manager is permitted, with the prior approval of the area supervisor of the housing project, to assign dwellings on a temporary basis to persons outside the groups listed in the Lanham Act.

On off-post projects for housing Army or Navy civilian and military personnel, the responsibility for selecting the tenants rests primarily with the commanding officer who keeps in touch with the housing manager. The commanding officer makes a preliminary selection of the families to be housed and asks them to fill in applications; from them he selects tenants to represent both the military personnel and civilian workers in fair proportions.

Family-dwelling units are not leased for occupancy by single persons. The "family" is construed to include the lessee, his wife, and dependents permanently residing with him. With the approval of the management families are permitted to take in lodgers, but such lodgers must be either in the military service or otherwise engaged in war activities. In assigning the family-dwelling units, the following occupancy standards are observed:

Family of—	Number of bedrooms in unit to which assigned
Not less than 2 nor more than 3 persons.....	1
Not less than 3 nor more than 5 persons.....	2
Not less than 4 nor more than 7 persons.....	3
Not less than 5 nor more than 9 persons.....	4

Types of Public Housing Accommodations

In selecting the site for a public war housing project the prime consideration is now its accessibility to the war activity it is to serve. Wherever possible, the projects are situated within walking distance of the war plant. If this is impractical, the housing must be located where adequate public transportation is available or will be provided; rubber and gasoline shortages have made this consideration increas-

ingly important. Although accessibility to the place of employment is the dominant consideration, the general attractiveness of the plot and the adequacy of utility services, public schools, stores, and such municipal services as police and fire protection, are among other factors to be taken into account in selecting the site. Because it has been impossible to find sites meeting all these requirements—particularly for large projects which constitute virtually whole new communities—Congress authorized \$320,000,000 for additional schools, hospitals, sewers, water supply, and other public works in war areas.¹⁴

The war housing program has been carried on under an unusual combination of circumstances. The housing has had to be furnished quickly; otherwise war production would be slowed down for lack of workers. Much of the need will disappear when the war ends, and private enterprise has not been willing to take the financial risks where the need was obviously temporary. Even if the Government would take the risk, local communities have been wary of repetition of the "ghost towns" of World War I, with their deflationary effects on local real estate values. The need has been widely scattered, and differences in climates, population densities, and local housing patterns have made necessary different types of dwellings. Furthermore, construction has been carried on at a time when numerous materials, particularly metals, were becoming scarce, and it has taken considerable ingenuity to build houses having the required minimum standards for health and safety, without many of the conventional materials.

Moreover, large numbers of publicly financed dwellings have had to be built within cost limits set by Congress. The Lanham Act, as originally passed in October 1940, stipulated that the average cost per family-dwelling unit within continental United States should not exceed \$3,000 and that no individual unit should cost more than \$3,950. In recognition of rising costs and to promote the greater use of clay products in the construction of war homes,¹⁵ Congress amended the Lanham Act on April 29, 1941, by raising the average cost to \$3,500. In January 1942, Congress authorized a further increase in the cost of permanent dwelling units to an average of \$3,750 and a maximum cost of \$4,500 per unit. These averages are exclusive of expenses of administration, land acquisition, public utilities, and community facilities. For houses constructed outside continental United States higher costs were authorized, to allow for extra transportation costs and for particular types of construction required for climatic reasons.

TYPES OF HOUSING UNDER CONTRACT

At the outset the public housing program included only permanently located family dwelling units, erected with conventional construction techniques. As the program expanded, increasing emphasis was put on the need for types of housing which would not result in the creation of costly "ghost towns" but which could be moved and reassembled in areas where additional housing would be needed after the war emergency had passed. On December 17, 1941, Congress appropriated \$300,000,000 to be used for temporary shelter. This stimulated use of the "dismountable" or high-salvage-value house in which

¹⁴ Public, Nos. 137, 400, and 522, 77th Cong.

¹⁵ See Federal Works Agency, Lanham Act Report Through November 30, 1941 (pp. 6 and 37).

many prominent architects foresee the means of applying to the mass production of low-cost housing in the post-war period the same techniques of design, manufacture, and sale which have proved so successful in the automobile industry.

Figures in table 3 show that up to March 1, 1942, contracts had been awarded for 10,535 demountable family units and 124,874 units of the more permanently located types. The latter included approximately 800 prefabricated units without the demountable feature. In addition, about 47,000 out of a total of 95,000 units programmed, but for which contracts had not been awarded by March 1, were to be demountable dwellings.

TABLE 3.—Number of Public War Housing Units Placed Under Contract, by Month, June 1940 to March 1942¹

Month	Number of family dwelling units				Number of dormitory units
	All family units	Stationary		Trailers and portable houses	
		Demountable	All other		
Total	142, 339	10, 535	124, 874	6, 930	11, 736
1940:					
June 28 to Sept. 30	4, 267		4, 267		
October	10, 766		10, 766		
November	7, 271		7, 271		
December	7, 012		7, 012		
1941:					
January	3, 610		3, 610		
February	8, 134	586	7, 548		
March	7, 627	542	7, 085		
April	13, 898	580	12, 698	620	1, 841
May	8, 623	470	7, 503	650	1, 688
June	9, 617	1, 175	8, 232	210	1, 424
July	7, 834	2, 507	5, 227	100	248
August	10, 845	1, 175	8, 556	1, 114	500
September	13, 605	2, 050	11, 055	500	962
October	6, 814	1, 300	4, 964	550	1, 366
November	5, 376		4, 145	1, 231	644
December	3, 854		3, 204	650	
1942:					
January	5, 628	150	4, 173	1, 305	2, 594
February	7, 558		7, 558		

¹ Compiled by Office of Administrator, National Housing Agency. Information for projects outside continental United States is not included because it is considered confidential.

In some localities the housing shortage was so desperate that trailer camps were resorted to as stop-gap housing until regular family-dwelling units could be provided. Two-room portable duplex cottages, not mounted on wheels, have been used for the same purpose. Such houses may be demounted and the parts transported for reassembly at another site or (because of their small size) may be transported in one piece. Trailers and portable houses have been utilized only in extreme emergencies, with the idea that when adequate housing of other types became available the trailers and portable houses could be moved to another area of acute shortage. The first contracts for trailers were awarded in April 1941. By March 1942 contracts had been awarded for 6,930 trailer and portable units and an additional 5,660 had been programmed.

To round out the housing program, the Government has built dormitories in areas where there are large numbers of single workers. The first contract was awarded in March 1941 for accommodations for 469 persons in Bremerton, Wash. By March 1942 dormitories

accommodating 11,736 workers were under contract and units for 7,566 more persons had been programmed.

DEMOUNTABLE AND PREFABRICATED HOUSING

A demountable house is one composed of large sections—such as floor, roof, and wall panels—which are assembled in such a way that they can be easily and quickly taken apart and reassembled at a new site with a minimum loss of materials and effort. The distinguishing feature of demountable housing is the use of bolts, wedges, or interlocking grooves, in place of nails, for connecting the sections.

Although demountability is not exclusively an attribute of prefabrication, it follows almost automatically from most kinds of prefabrication—whether at factory or at site—and is difficult to achieve with conventional construction methods. For these reasons and because public housing officials have desired to utilize all available production facilities, particularly those equipped to provide houses in quantity, the use of demountable housing has been expected to stimulate the prefabricated-housing industry to mass-production methods.

Prefabricated housing is not new. The oldest prefabricating company, which has produced well over 100,000 houses, began selling sectional houses in 1892 and supplied mess halls, barracks, and dwelling units to the Army during the first World War.¹⁶ The Federal Housing Administration has examined, and in most cases has accepted, the construction methods of 200 producers of prefabricated houses involving shop-fabricated construction. Of these methods, 47 percent used wood as the principal material; 28 percent involved steel; 17 percent, concrete; 4 percent, masonry; and 4 percent had no single material predominating.¹⁷ Because of the metal shortage, systems with steel as the principal material are not being used; wood and wallboard are currently preferred. The basic material for several hundred demountable prefabricated houses erected for workers at Vallejo, Calif., was an insulation board—Homasote. The principal ingredient of this board is old newspapers which are repulped, mixed with waxes, oils, and other weatherproofing elements, and pressed into large gray panels. A hundred demountable units erected at Hinesville, Ga., consisted of prefabricated wall, ceiling, roof, and floor panels, using plywood sheathing and weather-boarding on wood frame.

Systems have also been developed for mass production of floor, wall, and roof panels at the building site with practically the same efficiency as in a prefabricating factory, and with the added advantage that the finished panels do not have to be transported long distances by truck or train. Little special equipment or plant facilities are required. For example, one-story frame houses in the Avion Village project at Grand Prairie, Tex., were prefabricated at the site in circus tents. Basically, the method depends upon the use of a series of "jig tables" built from ordinary framing lumber and designed to "position" precut framing members used in the assembly of the floor, wall, ceiling, and roof panels from which the houses are constructed. Use of a variety of templates inserted in the jigs adapts the tables to the assembly of

¹⁶ Architectural Forum, February 1942 (pp. 84, 85): Prefabrication Gets Its Chance.

¹⁷ Federal Housing Administration, Insured Mortgage Portfolio, First Quarter 1942 (p. 19): Prefabrication and War Housing.

panels of various sizes and types, the first jig being used for exterior wall and partition panels, ceiling and roof panels; the second for floor panels; and the third for roof trusses and gable-end sections. Doors and windows may be installed on the finishing table or after panels have been erected.¹⁸ In a race between two teams of workers on the Avion Village project a one-story frame dwelling was erected from such prefabricated parts and utilities were installed in 57 minutes and 58 seconds. Although houses in this particular project are not demountable, they illustrate the method of site prefabrication to which the demountable feature could be added.

OTHER STATIONARY FAMILY UNITS

Special requirements in a few localities have made large apartment houses necessary. For example, the Navy needed housing for families of enlisted personnel in the Third Naval District and stipulated that the housing should be within 10 minutes' walking distance of the Brooklyn Navy Yard, which is in a thickly settled section of New York City where land costs are high. To satisfy the Navy's requirements, a 13-story apartment building, called "Wallabout Houses," with accommodations for 207 families, was built.

In general, however, single-family houses have predominated. Of approximately 96,000 regular family dwelling units under contract, for which the type of unit is shown in table 4, almost 90 percent were single-family units. Detached houses were in the minority, as more of the single-family units were constructed as twin or row houses.

The typical unit built under the Lanham Act is a two-bedroom, row house, without basement, but equipped with electric lights, hot and cold running water, installed heating equipment, and private toilet and bathing facilities. The kitchen is equipped with a range, refrigerator, combination sink and laundry tray with movable drain board, base cabinet, and kitchen shelving. Space for a washing machine is provided in either the kitchen or a storage closet opening off the kitchen. Dining space is provided in the kitchen or in an alcove off the living room, whichever seems to be preferred in the community.

The living room is so planned that it will accommodate a couch or davenport, two easy chairs, a desk or table, a radio, and other incidental furniture. A larger living room is provided if the house is heated by a space heater installed in the living room. If there is no partition between the kitchen and living room, a rod is provided on which a curtain can be hung.

The principal bedroom is large enough for twin beds, a dresser, chair, and child's crib. As single rooms are not recommended, the second bedroom is usually large enough for twin beds, dresser, and chair. Each bedroom has a closet and, in addition, the house has a coat closet, a linen closet, and general storage space. All closets visible from the living room have doors.¹⁹

¹⁸ For a more complete account, see *Architectural Forum*, April 1942 (pp. 199-203): FPHA Jig Tables for Field Assembly.

¹⁹ For greater detail, see National Housing Agency, Federal Public Housing Authority, Standards for Defense Housing Lanham Act Projects, March 1942.

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TABLE 4.—Number of Public War Housing Units Under Contract, by Type of Unit, March 1942¹

Type of unit	Number of units		
	Total	Defense Homes Corporation	All other
All types of family units.....	142,339	2,883	139,456
Single-family detached houses.....	13,483	2,038	11,445
Twin houses.....	31,371	31,371
Row houses.....	40,861	501	40,360
Flats.....	2,357	2,357
Apartments.....	7,801	180	7,621
Trailers.....	5,764	5,764
Portables houses.....	1,166	1,166
Figures not available.....	7,758	164	7,594
USHA-aided projects granted priorities assistance ²	31,778	31,778
Dormitory units.....	11,736	2,502	9,234

¹ Compiled by Office of Administrator, National Housing Agency, as of March 1, 1942. Information for projects outside continental United States is not included because it is considered confidential.

² Data on type of unit not available.

Adequacy of Interior Arrangements

An architect, who had visited over a hundred public housing projects all over the country, recently interviewed 30 housewives living in similar two- or three-bedroom row houses in projects in 8 northern cities. His purpose was to study the actual activities within the houses and to discover the strong and weak points in interior design.²⁰ Admittedly, 30 housewives are too few to represent the thousands who are living in war housing projects. Nevertheless, this small sample presents a new point of view—that of the woman who lives and works in the house.

Usually, the housewife's first response when asked to answer some questions about the plan of her home was to the effect that "It's just fine; there isn't a thing wrong with it." Subsequent questioning revealed a few things she would like to change, especially in the laundry and storage facilities.

The majority of the women liked the size of the living room because it was cozy and didn't require a lot of furniture. A few would have liked room for a piano. The group was unanimous in saying that the dining space should be in the kitchen rather than in the living room, to keep the "mess" out of the living room. However, 18 would have preferred a separate dinette handy to the kitchen.

Similarly, the bedrooms were satisfactory, although a little crowded with twin beds. Bedroom closets were large enough, but the housewives complained of dust settling on the clothes when there was no door, and in many cases the rod for the closet curtain was too low.

The kitchen was the most used room in the house—for cooking, eating, washing and ironing, as well as for play and study space for the children. Part of the units had doors separating the kitchen from the living room, and the consensus was that a door improved the appearance of the living room and kept cooking and laundry odors and vapors from spreading through the house. In most cases enough

²⁰ Architectural Forum, April 1942 (pp. 217-222): The Public Tenant Speaks, by Leonard Wayman.

over-counter cabinet space had been provided, but the cabinets were hung too high. There were some complaints of insufficient work-table space.

All of the families owned washing machines, and all but two women preferred an individual to a community laundry because it was frequently inconvenient to use the community laundry at the scheduled time, there was no place to leave the baby, the clothes were heavy to carry, and so forth. Washing in the kitchen presented problems, too, particularly if the clothes had to be dried inside. Although the double sink (one shallow and one deep) was useful for small hand washings, it was generally agreed that the shallow compartment was not adequate for large rinsings.

In general, the utility closet did not afford enough storage space. It was the architect's opinion that a utility room, adjacent to the kitchen-dining room, with laundry facilities and storage space, would be well worth the extra cost and would eliminate the chief causes of complaints.

The architect making this survey was interested primarily in getting ideas for improving interior arrangements of war housing units. Whether or not the families thought the rent and utility charges were reasonable and were satisfied with the schools, shops, transportation, playgrounds, and other facilities was not a part of his inquiry. However, he found that after the interview the housewife usually made some remark to the effect that "it was a wonderful place in which to live and bring up children, immeasurably better than what they had had before." He himself considered the exteriors lacking in rhythm and variety.

Cost of Homes to War Workers

DWELLINGS CONSTRUCTED UNDER LANHAM ACT

The Lanham Act, as originally passed, directed the Federal Works Administrator to "fix fair rentals on projects developed pursuant to this act, which shall be within the financial reach of persons engaged in national defense." The Administrator interpreted this to mean that rentals should be based on the income of the occupant, and until September 1941 a system of "graded rents" was in effect on all Lanham Act projects except those for enlisted personnel with allowance for quarters.

*"Graded Rent" System*²¹

The essence of the "graded rent" system was that the shelter rents, (i. e., rents exclusive of the utility charges) were to be in direct relation to the annual income of the principal wage earner, regardless of the size of dwelling required. The annual income of civilian personnel was computed on the basis of the worker's current income, on the assumption that he would work 40 hours a week for 50 weeks a year, with no provision for overtime. The shelter rents ranged from 16 to 23 percent of the annual income, averaging around 20 percent. This resulted in a scale of rents which ranged between \$13 a month for annual incomes of \$700 to \$800 and \$50 a month for incomes of

²¹ See Rent Schedules for Defense Housing Developments. FWA-DH-Circ-135, FWA 5367. (Mimeographed).

over \$3,000. An additional charge of \$5 a month was made for each lodger living with the family, and extra charges were made for utilities.

Army and Navy regulations allowed enlisted personnel of the first three grades \$34.50 per month for quarters. The Federal Works Administrator therefore charged such tenants \$34.50 a month for rent including utilities, regardless of the size of dwelling required. Enlisted personnel below the first three grades receive no allowance for quarters. They were therefore charged the same scale of rents in relation to income as civilian workers, with their annual incomes computed on the basis of their base pay, longevity, and ration allowance.

Under this system it was conceivable in extreme cases that a man earning over \$3,000, who had no children, would be paying \$50 for a one-bedroom unit while his neighbor with a large family but an income of less than \$800 would be getting a 3-bedroom unit for \$13.

Although the graded rent policy has been adopted on both publicly and privately financed low-cost housing projects,²² its application to war housing projects aroused criticism from a variety of sources. In the first place, the tenants were accustomed to rents related to the size of the dwelling, and a family living in a one-bedroom unit objected to paying according to income when this meant that its rent was higher than that for a family living in a larger dwelling. From an administrative standpoint even more serious criticisms were raised. There was a question whether the income should be that of the principal wage earner or of the family. If the former, who was the principal wage earner? In some families a son might be earning more than his father. Also, should income be figured on the base pay or the base pay plus overtime? Rapid expansion in war industries meant higher wage rates, overtime, and promotions on a large scale. To eliminate criticisms of unfairness and discrimination under these circumstances, would require endless checks on income and repeated changes in rentals. Likewise, the arbitrary grouping of income classes, adopted in order to reduce the number of rental changes, was criticized because it was possible for the effect of a small increase in income to be nullified because it placed the worker in a higher rent grouping. Finally, it was essential that there be no exceptionally high rentals which would furnish an incentive or excuse for unwarranted increases in rents by private landlords in the community.

"Space Rent" System

These considerations pointed to the desirability of changing from the graded rent to the "space rent" policy which was adopted on September 26, 1941.²³ Congress subsequently amended the Lanham Act to prevent use of the graded rent system in the future. This amendment required the Administrator to "fix fair rentals, on projects developed pursuant to this act, which shall be based on the value thereof as determined by him, with power during the emergency, in exceptional cases, to adjust the rent to the income of the persons

²² For a description of the "graded rent" system on United States Housing Authority projects, see Second Annual Report of Federal Works Agency 1941, pp. 138-140. For its operation in a privately endowed low-cost housing project, see Practices and Experiences of the Lavanburg Homes (third edition), published by Fred L. Lavanburg Foundation, New York City, 1941, pp. 8-11.

²³ See Federal Works Agency, Information Division. Memorandum for the Press, Release No. 195, September 27, 1941. (Mimeographed.)

to be housed, and that rentals to be charged for Army and Navy personnel shall be fixed by the War and Navy Departments."²⁴

In applying the space rent system, the primary consideration is the size of the dwelling. Shelter rent schedules for Army and Navy personnel stationed at posts, bases, and military reservations are the same throughout the country and vary according to size of the dwelling and enlisted or civilian status of the occupants. These schedules of rents (exclusive of utility charges) are as follows:

Enlisted personnel of first 3 grades with allowance for quarters and civilian personnel stationed at posts, bases, or military reservations:	1-bedroom unit	2-bedroom unit	3-bedroom unit
Army	\$21. 00	\$23. 50	\$23. 50
Navy ¹	21. 00	23. 50	26. 00
Enlisted personnel below first 3 grades with no allowance for quarters:			
Army	11. 00	13. 00	15. 00
Navy	11. 00	13. 00	15. 00

¹ Special authorization is necessary before Navy civilian employees can be allowed to live in developments intended for occupancy by Navy enlisted personnel. If such authorization is received, the shelter rent charges are in accordance with the rent schedule shown below.

Civilian employees of the Army and Navy not stationed at posts, bases, or military reservations are charged the same rents as workers in war industries living in the same projects. The national "norm" under the space rent policy for these workers is as follows:

1-bedroom dwelling	\$27. 50
2-bedroom dwelling	30. 00
3-bedroom dwelling	32. 50

With this national standard as a guide, the local housing manager recommends the rent schedule which he considers most suitable for the project. To support his recommendations, he must submit information covering the amenities of the project, rental patterns in the locality, incomes of the prospective tenants, and any other pertinent information. The ultimate objective is to obtain a fair average rent schedule that will be equitable for the majority of the tenants, despite the fact that the uniform application of the schedule may work a hardship on an occasional family.

Since the war housing program has been predicated on the assumption that private building will supply a large part of the need, it has been regarded as essential that rents on public housing projects conform to commercial rents in the community, so that the public projects would not result in unfair competition and thus discourage private enterprise from building and renting houses for war workers. The local manager is therefore required to report on the available supply of dwellings and the rents charged.

The income criterion is the annual family income. The average weekly earnings, including overtime, of the principal wage earner for a period of 50 weeks, together with the income of other employed members of the household, are counted as total family income. This information is obtained from the applications filed with the housing manager, records of the homes-registration office, and personnel directors of war industries.

When the space rent policy was put into effect, it was stipulated that in no case should the rents exceed \$37.50 a month. Early in

²⁴ Public, No. 409, 77th Cong., approved January 21, 1942.

March 1942 the lowest rent established under this policy was \$18 per month for one-bedroom units in Oak Leaf Park—a project for Negroes in Norfolk, Va. The highest was \$35 for three-bedroom units in a project in Warren, Ohio.²⁵ No additional charge was made for lodgers under this policy. Although the transition from the graded rent to the space rent policy obviously resulted in some rent increases, it was felt that the latter afforded a fairer basis for rental charges than the original graded rent policy.

In addition to the charges for shelter rent, the tenants must pay for utilities—gas, electricity, and water. In some cases tenants have individual check meters and pay for what they use. The more usual practice is to have a master meter for the entire project. In such cases, the total tenant consumption for the month is divided by the number of tenants in the project. The average consumption is multiplied by the retail rate for the utility prevailing in the community, and each tenant is charged the same amount regardless of his individual consumption.

OTHER PUBLIC WAR HOUSING PROJECTS

In March 1942 monthly shelter rents on family dwelling units constructed by the Defense Homes Corporation ranged from \$30.00 to \$62.50. The rates for dormitory accommodations in the public war housing program varied between \$3.50 and \$5.00 per person per week. Trailers were rented for \$6.00 to \$8.50 per week, including electricity and water; and portable houses with furniture, electricity, and water, were rented for \$7.50 to \$11.00 per week.

PRIVATELY FINANCED UNITS FOR RENT

The most commonly reported shelter rent on new privately financed rental units for which the WPB had approved applications for priorities assistance up to March 1, 1942, was from \$40 up to \$45 per month.²⁶ About 28 percent of all the rental units reported fell in this range and almost as many were to rent for \$45 up to \$50 a month. A shelter rent of less than \$35 per month was reported for little more than 10 percent of the rental units approved by WPB.

In the Bridgeport, Conn., defense area it was found that in February 1942 half the new privately financed dwelling units had been rented for at least \$50 per month. Since the majority of the rented units in Bridgeport were in 2-family houses, flats, or apartments, these charges doubtless covered more than shelter rent. Also, it should be pointed out that plans for these units had been made before the priorities-assistance policy became effective.

Occupancy Tenure

PUBLIC PROJECTS

The great majority of the homes built directly by the Government for war workers are rented on a month-to-month basis. If the tenant is in the military service and is transferred to another station, the lease may be terminated on 1 day's notice. For other tenants who wish to terminate their leases, the general rule is 15 days' prior notice in writing. The manager makes periodic checks on the employment

²⁵ Rents of \$37.50 per month were set in the Parkridge project at Bethlehem, Pa. However, this rent applied to only 2 experimental units in a 150-unit project.

²⁶ See footnote 9, p. 1262.

status of the tenants, and if a tenant is ineligible for continued occupancy because he is no longer employed in a war industry, his lease may be terminated with not less than 30 days' notice. If an enlisted man has had a change in rank which carries with it an allowance for quarters, where previously no allowance was given, he is given notice of adjustment in his rent.²⁷

Mutual Home Ownership Plan

A plan combining the advantages of home ownership with the flexibility of a rental system is being tried in a few public war housing projects: Popularly known as the "Camden Plan" because the first experiment took place in the Audubon Village project at Camden, N. J., the plan is more accurately characterized as "The Mutual Home Ownership Plan." Projects to be operated under this plan are intended to provide permanent homes for war workers employed in plants which are regarded as definitely established parts of the industrial life of the community. In May 1942, in addition to the Audubon Village project, the plan was being proposed for use in Grand Prairie and Dallas, Tex., and for projects nearing completion in Mount Ephraim and Linden, N. J., Dayton, Ohio, Philadelphia, Pa., and South Bend, Ind.

From the worker's standpoint, this plan for cooperative home ownership has two basic advantages. First, it eliminates the initial down payment, the most serious obstacle to the purchase of a home by many families. Second, by making small monthly payments similar to rent, workers are encouraged to buy homes without risking serious financial losses if they are forced to give them up.

The Federal Government builds the project which it will sell to a mutual ownership corporation composed of the occupants of the project. This corporation will undertake the management and operation of the project and will be responsible to the Government for the payment of interest and principal on the purchase price. The individual families will pay to the corporation their shares of interest, amortization, taxes, operating and other expenses, and will have the right to continue to occupy their dwellings as long as they keep up their payments to the corporation. When the purchase price of the project has been paid off, families will not have to make any further payments for interest and amortization, but will bear only their shares of taxes, operating and other expenses. Savings in expenses of operation and management will be used to keep payments to a minimum.

Members of the mutual ownership corporation can move within the project from one size of house to another better suited to their needs by arranging to pay the difference in proportionate cost between the units. This permits occupants to keep their housing adjusted to their needs without incurring the usual charges involved in selling a house.

While the Government retains certain controls over management in order to protect its investment, a large measure of responsibility for management is vested in the occupants of the project from the outset. Since any economies in management and operation accrue to the benefit of the tenants, it is to their advantage to keep down

²⁷ See copy of Dwelling Lease (For Army and Navy Enlisted and Civilian Personnel and Industrial Workers), FWA-Form-DHM 3. Rev. 9-15-41. Also, Federal Works Agency, Division of Defense Housing, Manual for Tenant Selection and Renting in Defense Housing Developments, November 1941. Part III. (Mimeographed.)

costs by making their own repairs and keeping the houses in good condition.

At the present time the financial aspects and reserve requirements of the Mutual Home Ownership Plan are undergoing changes. Although these changes are not yet crystallized, it appears that the original tentative estimates of the amounts necessary for reserves and administrative expenses will be revised upward.

PRIVATELY FINANCED HOMES

The majority of new privately financed homes built in critical areas up to March 1942 were for sale, and this fact alone caused them to fall short of meeting the housing needs of large numbers of war workers who were unable to make the required down payment or whose probable residence in the community was too indefinite to make home ownership desirable. In the Bridgeport, Conn., defense area, for example, only 1 out of every 7 new privately built units occupied in February 1942 was rented and most of those which were vacant were being held for owner-occupancy or for sale.

The tendency for private enterprise to build units for sale rather than for rent is also indicated by the applications for priorities assistance. Of the total applications approved by WPB and received by the NHA through February 1942, less than one-third were for properties to be rented. To correct this situation, the War Production Board Special Housing Committee unanimously recommended early in March 1942 that on the 200,000 additional private dwelling units for which it recommended priorities assistance, specific provision should be made (when issuing the certificates of priority) that at least 100,000 units throughout the country should be solely for rental to war workers. This committee further recommended that the private housing for which priorities were granted should be programmed so as to provide rental housing in every critical area at shelter rentals not to exceed 20 percent of the estimated annual earnings of war workers.

Occupancy Rates in Public Projects

Early in March 1942 almost two-fifths of the regular family units in the public war housing program for the continental United States at that time were available for occupancy, and families had moved into or had leased 85 percent of them. Only about a fourth of the trailers and portable houses programmed were available, but they were 95 percent occupied. The dormitory program was a third completed, and 90 percent of the rooms were occupied. Less progress had been made on the USHA projects. About 3 percent of the 43,000 family units in the USHA program for war workers were ready for occupancy and of these 57 percent were leased or occupied.

The occupancy status of the various types of accommodations provided in the 21 areas with the largest public housing programs is shown in table 5. For each of these localities more than 2,000 regular family-dwelling units had been programmed for public war projects, and in a number of them the public program also included trailers, portable houses, dormitories, and USHA projects.

In 11 of the 21 localities war workers were occupying or had leased 98 to 100 percent of the regular family units which were available in March. In all but 3 of the remaining areas the occupancy rate was higher than the country-wide average of 85 percent, the lowest rate

(43 percent) being in projects for workers in the ordnance plant in the Kingsbury-LaPorte, Ind., area. The first of the LaPorte units had been finished in February and there were enough eligible applicants to fill all those available by the first of March. As a matter of fact, in each of these 21 areas for which the number of eligible applicants was reported, the applicants not under lease exceeded the number of vacant units available.

TABLE 5.—Occupancy Rates in Public War Housing Projects, by Individual Localities, March 1942¹

Locality and type of accommodation ²	Number of units				Percent of available units occupied and leased	Number of eligible applicants not under lease
	Programmed ⁽³⁾	Under contract ⁽⁴⁾	Available for occupancy	Leased, including occupied		
Continental United States:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	186,553	103,631	73,420	62,259	85	(5)
USHA projects.....	43,031	31,778	1,448	821	57	(5)
Trailers and portable houses.....	12,590	6,930	3,207	3,039	95	(5)
Dormitories.....	19,302	11,736	6,082	5,443	90	(5)
Norfolk, Va.:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	15,747	3,887	3,857	3,654	94	2,34
USHA projects.....	430	230				
Trailers.....	500					
Dormitories.....	1,996	1,996	492	472	96	(5)
Washington, D. C.: ⁴						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	15,650	3,576	1,997	1,750	88	791
USHA projects.....	1,459	278				
Dormitories.....	2,500	644				
San Diego, Calif.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	9,400	5,700	5,360	4,749	89	2,156
Trailers.....	700	700	567	567	100	(5)
Dormitories.....	1,758	1,758	1,702	1,532	90	(5)
Newport News, Va.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	8,862	3,520	3,170	2,839	90	366
Trailers.....	500					
Dormitories.....	2,000					
Vallejo, Calif.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	6,650	3,450	3,450	3,375	98	382
Portable houses.....	200	200	150	121	80	(5)
Dormitories.....	2,968	1,488	893	893	100	(5)
Pittsburgh, Pa.:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	4,991	4,991	2,321	2,439	100	
USHA projects.....	942	942				
Philadelphia, Pa.:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	4,950	4,700	530	529	99	163
USHA projects.....	141					
Trailers.....	500					
Buffalo, N. Y.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	4,750	1,750	1,279	1,067	83	666
Charleston, S. C.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	4,406	1,836	1,827	1,815	99	821
Dormitories.....	358	358	358	300	83	(5)
Baltimore, Md.:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program.....	4,400	4,400	1,200	1,191	99	316
USHA projects.....	2,175	1,275				
Trailers.....	1,235	935	235	235	100	
Dormitories.....	605	605	305	305	100	
Kingsbury-LaPorte, Ind.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	3,950	800	655	283	43	381
Trailers.....	900	400				
Dormitories.....	1,500	500				
Wichita, Kans.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	3,300	1,000	400	400	100	1,994
Hartford, Conn.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	3,290	1,585	983	838	85	3,529
Portable houses.....	316	316	150	150	100	
Dormitories.....	378	378	378	282	75	
Long Beach, Calif.:						
Stationary family units—regular program.....	2,884	1,000	532	488	92	282

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 5.—Occupancy Rates in Public War Housing Projects, by Individual Localities, March 1942¹—Continued

Locality and type of accommodation ²	Number of units				Percent of available units occupied and leased	Number of eligible applicants not under lease
	Programmed ⁽³⁾	Under contract ⁽⁴⁾	Available for occupancy	Leased, including occupied		
Seattle, Wash.:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program	2,850	1,600	150	150	100	5
USHA projects	178	178				
New London, Conn.:						
Stationary family units—regular program	2,750	700	698	581	83	152
Dormitories	378	378	310	234	75	
Bremerton, Wash.:						
Stationary family units—regular program	2,730	1,580	1,505	1,505	100	1,788
Trailers	300	300	42	38	90	(5)
Dormitories	469	469	469	441	94	(5)
Cleveland, Ohio:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program	2,600	500	138	138	100	25
USHA projects	1,736	1,736	256	242	95	
Bridgeport, Conn.:						
Stationary family units—regular program	2,200	2,200	898	773	86	(5)
Ogden, Utah:						
Stationary family units—regular program	2,150	150	150	150	100	133
Trailers	300					
Mobile, Ala.:						
Stationary family units—regular program	2,110	850	500	500	100	30
All other localities:						
Stationary family units:						
Regular program	75,933	53,856	41,820	33,045	79	(5)
USHA projects	35,970	27,139	1,192	579	49	(5)
Trailers and portable houses	17,139	4,079	2,063	1,928	93	(5)
Dormitories	4,372	3,162	1,175	984	84	(5)

¹ Compiled by the Office of the Administrator, National Housing Agency, from the Locality Construction Table of Mar. 1, 1942, and the Defense Housing Occupancy Bulletin of Mar. 6, 1942. Information for projects outside continental United States is not included because it is considered confidential.

² The locality represents the entire housing-market area from which the labor supply for the various war industries and military establishments must be drawn. The regular defense housing projects (i.e., projects financed with funds from Public, Nos. 671, 781, and 849 of 76th Cong., and amendments, Public, No. 9 of 77th Cong., and amendments, and funds made available through Defense Homes Corporation) in a locality may be scattered and are not necessarily all located within the corporate limits of the city from which the locality takes its name. The USHA low-rental projects granted priorities assistance are all located inside the city indicated.

³ Projects for which Housing Administrator's approval or Presidential finding has been made.

⁴ All units for which contracts have been awarded, including those completed. ⁵ Not available.

⁶ Includes projects in Cabin John, Cheltenham, Forest Glen, and Greenbelt, Md., and in Alexandria, Arlington, and Falls Church, Va., which are in the District of Columbia locality.

Throughout the country there were 140 other localities with smaller public housing programs which had some regular family units ready for occupancy by March. In 63 of these, the available units were at least 95 percent occupied or leased. On the other hand, in 21 localities, less than half of the available dwellings were occupied.

The low occupancy rates result from a variety of factors. Normally some lag occurs between the time the units become available and the time they are completely occupied. In numerous cases prospective tenants are not in a position to move into the new homes until they can either bring furniture from their former homes or buy enough to make the new ones livable. Troop movements within the country as well as to overseas stations have caused sharp fluctuations in the number of men in the various military establishments, and projects in 11 of the localities with less than half the units occupied had been built for the families of enlisted men. Moreover, construction of new plants and plant expansions in many localities has fallen behind the original schedules, and in some cases work scheduled for one locality has been shifted completely to another, leaving a surplus of housing in the first community.

DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORY WORKERS BY HOURLY AND WEEKLY EARNINGS¹

CURRENT interest in wage stabilization directs attention to the necessity of viewing industrial wages as a complex structure, and not merely as a series of broad averages in which individual differences offset each other. If national policy on wage changes is to take account of the current earnings of the workers, as has been suggested by the President, it is of considerable importance to know how many workers are to be found at various levels along the wage scale. Such information is also of value in the administration of minimum-wage legislation and in the study of national income.

The total number of industrial workers to be found in the various segments of the wage structure is not known. Special studies by the Bureau, however, have provided enlightening detail regarding the wage structure of individual industries. The present article represents an attempt to draw together the results of some of these studies for the purpose of estimating in general terms the distribution of hourly and weekly earnings of all factory workers. The methods employed in preparing the estimates are discussed in the final section.

Hourly Earnings at Straight Time

The estimated distribution of workers in manufacturing industries by average hourly earnings in January 1942 is presented in table 1. This distribution is based on earnings at regular rates, exclusive of premium payments for overtime work.² It is not surprising, therefore, that it yields a general average of only 76 cents per hour, as compared with a reported average of 80.1 cents, including premium overtime.

It will be noted that the largest number of workers in any of the 10-cent wage classes received 70 to 80 cents per hour. Only 7 percent received less than 40 cents per hour and not 1 worker out of 100 earned less than 30 cents. Nearly one-fifth (19 percent) of all workers earned \$1.00 or more per hour, and 6 percent earned \$1.20 or more.

The distribution in table 1 is characterized by a wide dispersion of earnings and by remarkable smoothness. No fewer than 6 of the 10-cent wage classes include one-tenth or more of all workers, and the only aberration in the distribution occurs in the 40-50 cent class, where it reflects the influence of the 40-cent minimum wage applicable to many of the industrial establishments covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. The dispersion of individual earnings appears to be due to the representation of widely different industries, for examination of the underlying data for single industry groups reveals that marked concentration about some one modal wage class is typical. The

¹ By Robert J. Myers and Louis M. Solomon, of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis.

² Payments in the form of night premiums for workers employed on late shifts have not been removed, but in manufacturing as a whole and in the major industry groups the influence of such payments is believed to be negligible.

group of workers receiving less than 40 cents per hour was concentrated largely in the textile³ and lumber industries and included disproportionately large numbers of southern workers, women, and Negroes. The highest-paid workers were concentrated largely in the transportation-equipment group, machinery, iron and steel and non-ferrous metals, and certain other heavy industries.

Table 1 also shows separately the data for six major industry groups which the Bureau has classified for various purposes as "war industries." This classification is not represented to comprehend all the industries engaged in war production; nor are all the workers included therein actually employed on war contracts. The war-industries group is distinguished only to illustrate the characteristic levels of earnings of workers in the industries most immediately affected by the war program. The average hourly earnings in these industries were 84 cents and the proportion of the workers in the higher-wage brackets was considerably greater than for all manufacturing combined. Among the war industries, only the lumber and allied products group included any substantial number of low-wage workers.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Distribution of Workers in Manufacturing Industries, by Hourly Earnings at Straight Time, January 1942*

Hourly earnings	All manufacturing		War industries ¹	
	Number of workers	Percent	Number of workers	Percent
Under 40 cents.....	710,000	7	240,000	4
40 and under 50 cents.....	1,340,000	13	350,000	6
50 and under 60 cents.....	1,010,000	10	420,000	7
60 and under 70 cents.....	1,410,000	13	730,000	13
70 and under 80 cents.....	1,500,000	14	870,000	15
80 and under 90 cents.....	1,370,000	13	860,000	15
90 and under 100 cents.....	1,100,000	11	760,000	13
100 and under 110 cents.....	830,000	8	620,000	11
110 and under 120 cents.....	570,000	5	450,000	8
120 cents and over.....	610,000	6	450,000	8
Total.....	10,450,000	100	5,750,000	100
Average.....	76 cents		84 cents	

¹ Includes the following major industry groups: Iron and steel and nonferrous metals, machinery, transportation equipment, lumber, and chemicals.

Although the figures for single industry groups are less reliable than those for all manufacturing, they are useful in providing a rough indication of the proportions of workers in the high-wage and low-wage brackets. Such information appears in table 2.

³ The 40-cent minimum wage became effective throughout most of the textile industries in April 1942; large segments of this industry group were operating under lower minima in January 1942.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Distribution of Workers in Major Industry Groups, by Broad Classes of Straight Time Hourly Earnings, January 1942*

Industry group	Approximate number of workers ¹	Percent of workers earning—				
		Total	Under 40 cents	40 and under 70 cents	70 cents and under \$1.00	\$1.00 or more
Transportation equipment.....	1, 180, 000	100	(2)	12	38	50
Rubber products.....	130, 000	100	2	33	32	33
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products.....	500, 000	100	7	23	38	32
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	1, 640, 000	100	1	33	44	22
Paper and printing.....	680, 000	100	3	28	48	21
Iron and steel and nonferrous metals.....	1, 580, 000	100	1	24	55	20
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	330, 000	100	9	31	43	17
Wearing apparel.....	570, 000	100	1	61	27	11
Leather and its manufactures.....	320, 000	100	2	65	25	8
Lumber and allied products.....	670, 000	100	23	44	25	8
Food and kindred products.....	900, 000	100	8	43	42	7
Textile fabrics.....	1, 160, 000	100	24	56	16	4
Tobacco manufactures.....	90, 000	100	18	66	14	2

¹ Excludes a small number of workers in miscellaneous minor industries for which information is not available by industry group.

² Less than five-tenths of 1 percent.

Gross Weekly Earnings

The weekly earnings presented in this article, in contrast to the hourly earnings presented above, include premium overtime payments as well as night-shift premiums, and correspond with the "take-out pay" commonly referred to in industry. The estimates of weekly earnings apply to December 1941, since more recent wage statistics were not available at the time these estimates were prepared. Average weekly earnings in January 1942 were approximately \$1.40 higher than the December average.

The estimates presented in table 3 indicate that nearly one-quarter (24 percent) of all manufacturing wage earners earned less than \$20 per week, while the largest group (only 26 percent) earned \$20 but less than \$30. Only 13 percent earned as much as \$50.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Distribution of Workers in Manufacturing Industries, by Weekly Earnings, December 1941*

Weekly earnings	All manufacturing		War industries ¹	
	Number of workers	Percent	Number of workers	Percent
Under \$20.....	2, 490, 000	24	740, 000	13
\$20 and under \$30.....	2, 810, 000	26	1, 180, 000	21
\$30 and under \$40.....	2, 240, 000	21	1, 350, 000	24
\$40 and under \$50.....	1, 650, 000	16	1, 180, 000	21
\$50 and over.....	1, 410, 000	13	1, 140, 000	21
Total.....	10, 600, 000	100	5, 590, 000	100
Average.....	\$32.40		\$37.50	

¹ Includes the following industry groups: Iron and steel and nonferrous metals, machinery, transportation equipment, lumber, and chemicals.

It will be noted that the proportion of workers earning less than \$20 per week is somewhat larger than the proportion shown in table 1 to be earning under 50 cents per hour (the rate which would yield \$20 in a 40-hour week). This apparent discrepancy is explained in part by the prevalence of short hours in some industries and in part by the difference in periods covered. The relatively large proportion of workers earning more than \$40 per week, as compared with the percentage earning over \$1.00 per hour, is due largely to premium payments for overtime work, especially in the war industries.

In the 6 industry groups, classified as "war industries," weekly earnings averaged \$37.50 in December 1941, or about \$5 above the average for manufacturing industries as a whole. Less than one-seventh (about 13 percent) of the workers in these "war industries" earned less than \$20 per week. The largest group of workers, nearly one-quarter, earned \$30 but less than \$40; more than one-fifth earned \$50 or more.

Weekly earnings in certain industry groups are subject to wide seasonal variations, occasioned primarily by fluctuations in the hours of work. It would be misleading, therefore, to present by industry group the precise percentages of the workers falling in specified high-wage or low-wage classes. It may be mentioned, however, that the industry groups with the largest proportion (over 40 percent) of workers earning less than \$20 a week in December 1941 were lumber, textile fabrics, tobacco manufacturers, and wearing apparel; in none of these groups did more than 5 percent of the workers attain \$50 a week. In several other industry groups—such as transportation equipment, machinery, and iron and steel and nonferrous metals—more than one-fifth of the workers earned \$50 or more.

Method of Estimating

As a foundation for its composite wage structure, the Bureau has been able to draw upon detailed wage statistics for some 48 industries in which wage studies have been made during recent years. These industries exhibit great diversity with regard to geographic location and type of labor force, and include representation of all the major groups of manufacturing industry. The nonferrous-metals group, however, is inadequately represented, and for purposes of these estimates has been combined with the iron and steel group. Other industry groups for which the representation is relatively inadequate include "stone, clay, and glass products," and "chemical, petroleum, and coal products."⁴ In somewhat more than half of the 48 industries the original statistics refer to a period earlier than 1940; for only one is the period earlier than 1937.

The processes by which these incomplete and somewhat out-of-date statistics have been transformed into a comprehensive and relatively current wage structure for all manufacturing industry are suggested by the following outline of major steps:⁵ (1) It was necessary to de-

⁴ A number of important additional studies now under way or planned for the near future will greatly improve the representation of certain heavy industries, and hence should increase the reliability of future estimates of the general levels of earnings.

⁵ This outline refers specifically to the estimated distribution of hourly earnings. The steps taken in arriving at a distribution of weekly earnings were closely similar.

termine for each of the 48 industries the extent of the increase in the general level of wages since the time of the Bureau's detailed study; for this purpose use was made of the Bureau's monthly statistics on average hourly earnings, which were first roughly adjusted to remove the influence of overtime earnings at premium rates. (2) The basic statistics for each industry were then corrected for known changes in minimum-wage regulations since the time of the original study; this correction naturally accounted for part of the increase in the averages of industrial hourly earnings. (3) All workers not affected by a change in the minimum wage were then shifted upward along the wage scale to the extent necessary to account for the remaining increase in average hourly earnings. (4) The industries were then classified by major industry group and their wage structures again raised or lowered slightly to compensate for industries in that group for which averages were known but for which detailed statistics were not available. (5) The various distributions were then combined into several (weighted) composite distributions representing each of the major industry groups; these were plotted, examined critically, and smoothed in a few instances to remove obvious artificial irregularities. (6) These distributions for major industry groups were combined into a weighted total distribution for all manufacturing industries combined.

Two important assumptions inherent in the above procedure are that the general conformation of the wage structure of an individual industry is not fundamentally altered by a change in the industry's wage level, and that the wage structures of the unrepresented industries are similar to those of the "represented" industries in the same industry group. In view of the uncertainty of these assumptions and the existence of other possible sources of error, it is obvious that the resulting estimates should be regarded only as rough approximations and should be used with caution.

LABOR ASPECTS OF THE CHICAGO MILK INDUSTRY¹

Summary

IN THE bitter competitive struggle in which the Chicago milk industry has been engaged during the past 8 or 9 years, the milk vendor has played an important part. Recognized not as an employee of the distributor, but as an independent small businessman who buys products outright and sells them to his own customers, the vendor has been closely associated with cut-rate milk distribution and with the rising trend of sales through retail stores. The vendor system and the growth of store distribution have consequently contributed to the displacement of employed milk drivers, and have constituted a serious threat to the drivers' union.

A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the winter of 1941-42 reveals that the price charged by vendors per single quart of milk delivered to the home is typically about 1½ cents lower than the price received by employed drivers. The price difference, however, does not appear to be due to any greater efficiency on the part of the vendors, whose stops are, in fact, somewhat more scattered than those of the drivers. On the other hand, this commendable saving to the consumer is made at a considerable cost to the vendor, for vendors' weekly incomes, averaging \$46 in the week of the Bureau's survey, were some \$6 lower than the incomes of employed drivers. About two-thirds of the vendors failed to attain the \$48 basic wage paid to union drivers.

Vendors also have less favorable working conditions than drivers. Nearly four-fifths of the vendors work 7 days a week, while drivers work only 6, and the weekly hours of vendors are somewhat longer than those of drivers. Vendors must sometimes press other members of their families into service without extra remuneration; neither the vendors nor their helpers are ordinarily protected by a minimum wage nor by other forms of social security. In consequence, the vendor system menaces the working standards even of those drivers who are able to retain their jobs.

The Vendor Problem

The problem in Chicago was clearly defined in the opinion of the Supreme Court delivered by Mr. Justice Black in November 1940 in the case of *Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local No. 753, v. Lake Valley Farm Products, Inc.* (311 U. S. 91).

With the approach and continuance of the depression of the early thirties the milk business, like other industries, was in acute distress. Loss of profits from decreased demand stimulated dairies to devise new and cheaper methods to obtain and serve customers. Under the long-existing practice in Chicago, dairies had owned milk trucks and wagons, and had operated them with employee drivers—chiefly members of the A. F. of L. local. A major part of the business consisted of door-to-door deliveries to retail customers. Some of the A. F. of L.

¹ This report was prepared by Mary Gresham assisted by Joseph W. Bloch, of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis. The field survey which provided data for part of the report was directed by P. L. Jones and John F. Laciskey. The survey was conducted and the report prepared under the general supervision of Sidney C. Sufrin. A more complete report of the Bureau's survey, including numerous additional tables, may be secured from the Bureau upon request.

drivers also delivered milk to retail stores, those stores in turn selling to their customers. What appears to have been an insignificant part of the milk supply of pre-depression Chicago was delivered by retail milk "peddlers" who bought from the dairy at wholesale and sold at retail from their own trucks or wagons. But with the depression this practice of sale by "peddlers" expanded, branched out into sales to retail stores, and developed into what is called the "vendor system." * * *

With the spread of this new competitive system, the business of the dairies employing union milk-wagon drivers decreased. Many of the union drivers lost their jobs and were dependent upon their union's relief funds and upon public relief agencies for their support.

The vendor system is not restricted to Chicago nor to the milk industry, but is apparent in other cities and other industries. While not born of the depression, its growth was undoubtedly encouraged by the economic maladjustments of the 1930's, for it is a part of the trend to replace employees by independent outside salesmen and commission men that has occurred during the past decade. Such a system presents possibilities of serious social and economic effects. It was with the purpose of investigating the vendor system in the light of these repercussions that the survey was conducted.

The nature of the vendor problem makes it necessary to discuss the characteristics of the fluid-milk industry, its price structures and the changes in these structures, and the traditional methods of distribution and the changes therein. The vendor system has encouraged, if not actually caused these changes and the changes have, in turn, created problems of unemployment and pressure on wages, as well as other labor problems. It is therefore necessary, in order to understand the implications of the vendor system, to present as a background a picture of the Chicago industry as a whole.

Economic Organization of Chicago Milk Industry

The Chicago milk-marketing area, with a population in 1940 of 3,567,628, includes Chicago, Evanston, Wilmette, Kenilworth, Winnetka, Glencoe, and Oak Park.² This area receives its supply of raw milk from the area known as the Chicago "Milk Shed," the proportions supplied by each section in the period September 1939–September 1941 being as follows: Illinois (43.3 percent), Indiana (5.7 percent), Wisconsin (49.4 percent), and Michigan (1.6 percent). (See chart 1.)

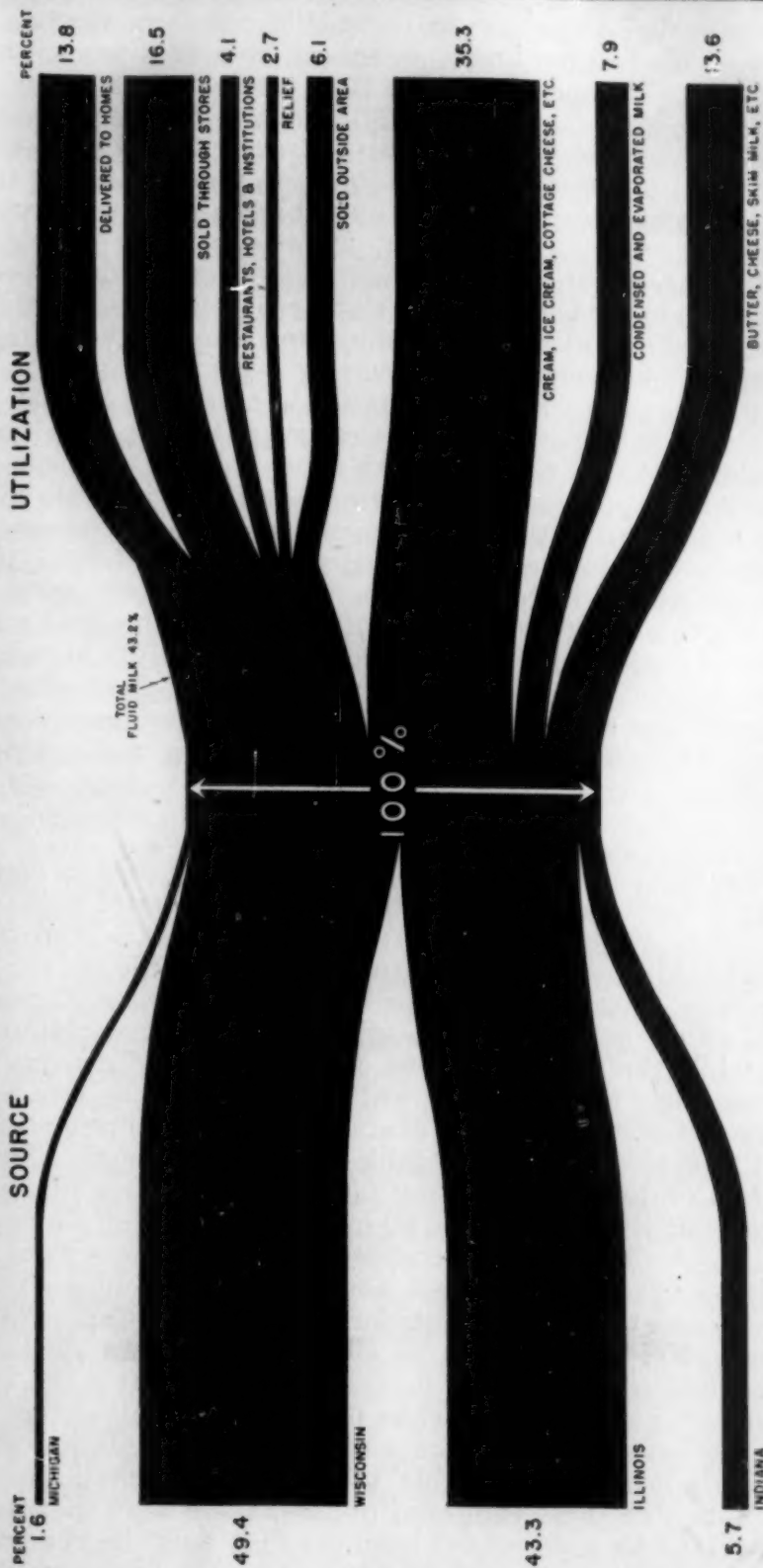
The products of the milk industry are fluid milk (that is, pasteurized milk of the type delivered to homes or sold at the store), cream, butter, buttermilk, cheese, ice cream, ice-cream mix, evaporated and condensed milk, dried or powdered milk, casein, etc. For the purposes of this report, the discussion is restricted primarily to fluid milk and its distribution in the Chicago market area.

THE MILK PRODUCERS

During the year 1941, an average of 17,533 producers delivered 2,300,000,000 pounds of milk to the Chicago market, for which they received \$48,500,000.² Of the total amount produced, 43.2 percent was used as fluid milk, the remainder going into cream, cheese, manufactured milk, and other milk products. (See chart 1.)

² Reports of the Federal Milk Market Administrator, Chicago, Ill.

SOURCE AND UTILIZATION OF MILK ENTERING CHICAGO MARKETING AREA DURING RECENT TYPICAL PERIOD



Source: FEDERAL MILK MARKET ADMINISTRATOR, CHICAGO, REPORTER, OCTOBER, 1941 AND JANUARY, 1942
DISTRIBUTION OF FLUID MILK IN CHICAGO ESTIMATED BY THE BUREAU

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Production in 1941 was 243,000,000 pounds greater than in 1940, but the distribution according to class changed somewhat in 1941; the proportion used as fluid milk decreased from 47.6 percent of the 1940 production to 43.2 percent of the 1941 total, while a larger proportion was used in manufactured milk. The war demands for condensed, evaporated, and powdered milk for export probably caused this increase, and the production goal for these products set by the Department of Agriculture for 1942 is even higher than the production for 1941.

Producer cooperatives.—Although the first producer cooperative organization in the Chicago milk shed was established as early as 1887, none of the efforts at price bargaining and cooperative marketing prior to 1926 had been very successful.

In 1926 the Pure Milk Association, one of the largest producers' cooperatives in the country at the present time, was formed as a bargaining association of the dairy farmers in the Chicago milk shed. Its primary purposes are to maintain relations with milk distributors, discuss market conditions with them, and reach agreements on the prices to be paid to the farmers. Before the end of 1935, the association is reported to have had a membership of 17,000 farmers, and in June 1935 these farmers supplied 72 percent of the fluid milk sold by all licensed dealers in Chicago during that month. Membership had declined to approximately 12,000 by 1939. In November 1941, the manager of the association estimated, the members were producing approximately 80 percent of the supply of fluid milk shipped to the Chicago market.

THE MILK DISTRIBUTORS

During 1941, according to official reports, 144 dealers distributed to Chicago consumers more than 400,000,000 quarts of milk. The estimated value of this milk was over \$40,000,000. More than 3,000 vehicles were licensed for the purpose of distributing milk. The major portion was distributed to the ultimate consumer through 12,000 licensed stores and through hospitals, institutions, restaurants, and hotels, while the smaller proportion was delivered directly to homes.

Despite early tendencies toward concentration, as late as 1915 the industry in Chicago was still characterized by numerous small units. At that time there were 1,260 milk dealers in Chicago. Then, in July 1916, the Commissioner of Health issued an order requiring that, with the exception of certified milk, all milk sold or used in Chicago must be pasteurized.³ As a result, hundreds of small dealers were forced out of business because they were not equipped for pasteurization and could not meet the requirements for additional capital. By 1918 there were only 603 milk dealers in Chicago,⁴ and two dealers handled 40 percent of the fluid milk in 1917—the year after the compulsory pasteurization ordinance.⁵ Thus pasteurization played an important part in the development of concentration in the milk industry.

Although it is now possible to purchase a small pasteurization plant for two or three thousand dollars, there are other items which are important to a successful business that must be considered, such as trucks for distribution and advertising. The investment required

³ Ross, H. A.: *The Marketing of Milk in the Chicago Dairy District, 1925*. University of Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, Vol. 18, Bull. 269, p. 464.

⁴ Federal Trade Commission. *Sales and Distribution of Milk and Milk Products*, Chicago Sales Area, p. 20. (H. Doc. No. 45, 74th Cong., 2d sess.).

⁵ *Journal of Political Economy*, April, 1918. *The Chicago Milk Inquiry*, by C. S. Duncan.

is relatively small and many small plants exist in the industry, but the fact remains that in all the larger markets by far the greater part of the sale and distribution of fluid milk is in the hands of only a few dealers.

The two largest companies handling fluid milk in Chicago are the Borden-Wieland Division of the Borden Co., and the Bowman Dairy Co., Inc. In June 1935, when there were 131 licensed distributors in Chicago, these two accounted for 553,004 quarts or nearly 50 percent of the total daily sales of fluid milk in Chicago.⁶ No data are available on how much of the present market these two companies serve, but it is probable that their proportion has declined somewhat since 1935.

Dealer associations.—Prior to 1935, distributors in Chicago tended to join one of two dealer associations. The Chicago Milk Dealers' Association, incorporated in 1895, had in 1935 about 100 members in Chicago and its environs. The Milk Council, Inc., had 18 members, including the 5 largest milk dealers in Chicago, at the time of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration marketing agreement in 1933. These two organizations merged in January 1935 to form the Associated Milk Dealers, Inc., and in June of that year had a membership of 82 Chicago dealers.⁷

The principal duties of the Associated Milk Dealers are to negotiate with the Milk Wagon Drivers' Union with regard to wages and other working arrangements, to negotiate with the Pure Milk Association regarding contract matters other than price arrangements, and to represent the dealers' interest at hearings of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration on producers' prices.

In 1935 it was stated that nearly all the distributors under contract to purchase milk from the Pure Milk Association belonged to the Associated Milk Dealers, Inc., but a majority of the distributors purchasing from independent producers were not members.⁷

Recently, the Chicago Milk Dealers' Association has again become active as a separate organization. Its membership appears to consist of small dealers, most of whom have withdrawn from the Associated Milk Dealers, Inc.

COMPETITIVE PRACTICES

All milk products are made from the same raw material—cow's milk purchased from the farmer—but they "find their way into different markets where customs are unlike, ways of thought are different, and the mechanisms for price making bear little resemblance to each other."⁸ An analysis of some of the economic characteristics which distinguish fluid milk from most other commodities is necessary for the full understanding of the problem involved in vendor distribution.

Although products other than fluid milk are distributed in Chicago by milk drivers and vendors, it is in the distribution of fluid milk that the vendor system has had the most serious effects upon the retail price structure, traditional methods of distribution, and union wage standards.

Municipal control.—Fluid milk and all milk produced for the Chicago fluid-milk market are subject to regulation by the city govern-

⁶ Federal Trade Commission. Sales and Distribution of Milk and Milk Products, Chicago Sales Area; p. 9. (H. Doc. No. 45, 74th Cong., 2d sess.)

⁷ *Idem*, p. 7.

⁸ Till, Irene: *Milk—The Politics of an Industry*, in *Price and Price Policies* by Walton Hamilton and Associates, Sec. VIII, p. 461. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938.

ment. Its standards and requirements are set forth in the Mayor Kelly Milk Ordinance passed by the city council in January 1935, and the Chicago Board of Health is responsible for the enforcement of this ordinance. Practically every step in the production, handling, and distribution of milk is regulated, beginning at the farm and continuing until the milk reaches the consumer.

The regulations governing dairy farms require inspections every 6 months and certification by a veterinary as to the health of each animal in the dairy herd. The feeding of the cows, the construction and cleanliness of the dairy barn, the grading and draining of the cow yard, the location, construction and cleanliness of the milk house, the location and operation of the water supply, treatment of utensils, cooling of milk, and numerous other activities are covered by the regulations.

Once the farmer has satisfactorily met all these requirements for his dairy farm, he may deliver his milk to one of the country milk stations or to a distributor who sells his milk in the Chicago market. The milk is usually transported in refrigerated tanks mounted on special motor trucks or in specially built railroad cars to a pasteurization plant. These pasteurization plants are also regulated in detail on method and conditions of pasteurization, maximum permissible bacterial plate count, cleanliness, ventilation, safeguards against contamination, etc.

In order to be sold as fluid milk, milk must conform with the following standards: (1) The milk fat content must be not less than 3.25 percent; (2) the milk solids-not-fat content must be not less than 8.5 percent; and (3) milk must be clean, free of sediment, and have a normal flavor, odor, and appearance. It must be delivered in vehicles, owned by distributors or vendors, which meet the Board of Health specifications. All pasteurized milk must be sold, according to the Kelly ordinance, "not later than midnight of the day beginning 25 hours after the day of pasteurization."

The above are only a few of the vigorously enforced rules and regulations affecting milk in the Chicago market. Similar regulations exist in other large markets.

Economic effects of a sheltered market.—The very mechanics of the system of local inspection have tended to limit the milk shed and to restrict supply. In the interest of municipal economy it is cheaper to inspect nearby farms and plants within a set area. Also, there is little doubt that the size and shape of the milk shed has been influenced at times by political pressures.

Distributors in the Chicago market do not have to compete in price with distributors in other markets where wages may be lower, or where producers may be receiving a lower price, or where surpluses (market milk not sold as fluid milk) may be larger. They do not have to fear "dumping," since local inspection has erected a wall against supply from outside. As a result, the fluid-milk price can be maintained within the market despite lower prices just beyond the domain of municipal control. In a market where well-organized producers and dealers can control their members, this situation could conceivably continue indefinitely.

Recognition of the inadequacies and evils of such a system was partly responsible for the Department of Agriculture's statement in

its 1940 Yearbook that "there is a real opportunity to remove the barriers to interstate trade in milk and cream and other dairy products by devising a system under which each State and each municipality will accept inspection by accredited inspectors located in other States."

Classified price plan.—Closely related to the sheltered market, and fundamental to the analysis of the economics of the milk industry, is an understanding of the pricing methods used in purchasing milk from farmers in the large markets. These complex methods, gradually evolved during the past 20 years, were an attempt to solve the problems of both distributors and producers.

The distributor is confronted with a demand which fluctuates daily, depending upon seasonal conditions, the temperature, and the weather, as well as upon other variables. He must be assured of a daily supply sufficient to meet his estimates of the demand and, as a result, he frequently has surpluses—milk that must be disposed of in some way other than as fluid milk. The perishability of the product makes it imperative that the producers sell all their milk daily. Since the milk stream cannot be turned off and on at will, they are confronted with a serious problem in disposing of their total daily output during the high season of production as well as during the low season.

Farmer cooperatives formed during the World War and immediately thereafter evidently bargained with distributors for flat prices for all milk. After the World War, however, fluid-milk production increased, sanitary regulations became more rigid, and producers demanded a higher price. The distributors at the same time desired a price system which would lessen their risk of loss in disposing of milk not used as fluid milk. As a result, a system was gradually developed of pricing milk according to the form in which it was sold by the distributors. This system, known as a "classified-price plan," was apparently first used on an extensive scale in Boston as early as 1898 and in Washington and Philadelphia about 1918. It came into use in Chicago the following year. At the present time such price systems are in effect in most large markets.

Although the specific plan may vary from market to market, the principle remains the same—the farmers receiving for raw milk a price determined by the end use to which the milk is put. Under such a price system the distributor can measure each day's supply to meet the demand for fluid milk, convert the remainder into other products, pay for the raw material in terms of the quantity used for each purpose, and thereby avoid an oversupply of fluid milk, which would threaten losses from spoilage and endanger the retail or wholesale price structure.

Under the classified-price plan the farmer receives more for his milk which is used for fluid milk than for milk used for any other purpose. The problem therefore arose as to how to give each producer an equitable share of the fluid-milk market. In Chicago the problem has been met in different ways at different times. The plan now in operation is known as the "market pool plan."

Under this plan each producer's share of the fluid-milk market is determined by the total of all classes of milk sold in the entire market. Producers therefore ship their milk to the dealers, who dispose of it and pay into a pool operated by the Federal Milk Market Administrator a sum determined by the use of the milk. The producers then receive from the pool an average, or "blend," price of all milk sold in

the market. This price is computed by multiplying the quantity sold in the market for each use by the price set for that class of milk and dividing the total amount in dollars by the total quantity of milk sold in the market for all uses.

In the Chicago market, classes of milk and prices of each class in December 1941, under Federal Market Order No. 41 as amended, were:

	Price per cwt. to farmer
Class I.—All milk disposed of in the form of fluid milk, except such milk as is used for purposes for which no approval by health authorities in the marketing area is necessary and all milk not accounted for in other classes	\$2.93
Class II.—All milk, except skim milk, disposed of in the form of flavored milk and flavored-milk drinks, and all milk disposed of in the form of cream, sweet or sour, cottage cheese, buttermilk, frozen cream, ice cream, and ice-cream mix	\$2.55
Class III.—All milk whose butterfat is used to produce a milk product other than one of those specified in class II and class IV, and all milk disposed of for those purposes for which no approval by health authorities in the marketing area is necessary	\$2.23
Class IV.—All milk the butterfat from which is used to produce butter and cheese except cottage cheese, and all milk accounted for as actual plant shrinkage, but not to exceed 2 percent of the total receipts	\$1.87

The average (blend) price which the farmer received for all milk in December 1941 was \$2.60 per hundredweight.

GROWTH OF THE VENDOR SYSTEM

The vendor system of distributing milk had been used in the Chicago market as far back as 1920, or earlier. Prior to 1931, however, vendors as a rule maintained regular retail routes and sold at prevailing prices, therefore causing little trouble to the Milk Wagon Drivers' Union or to the distributors who had agreements with this union. The expansion of the vendor system thereafter was made possible only by the existence of conditions in the Chicago market favorable to its growth. Seen in retrospect, the principal reason for the success of the vendor system lay not so much in the competitive advantage to be gained by the use of vendors instead of drivers as in the inflexibility of the organized market's price structure and the traditional method of distribution. The Chicago market in the early thirties presented a golden opportunity to the aggressive investor willing to reap a reward by circumventing established practices in the face of strong opposition. Several factors contributed to assuring success to such a venture:

(1) Although most distributors in the market were purchasing milk through the Pure Milk Association under the "classified-price plan," milk was also available at a lower cost on a "flat price" basis. Prices of fluid milk to the farmer during 1930 and 1931 declined very slightly in comparison with the sharp decline in prices of milk products, and this disparity served to increase the flow of fluid milk, not only from regular producers but from producers who had not shipped fluid milk prior to 1930. As a result, milk could be purchased from individual producer-members of the cooperative at a "flat price" as high as or higher than the "blend price" they received through the cooperative, and many nonmember producers were willing to sell their fluid milk for whatever terms they could get. The Pure Milk Association did

not have sufficient control of the market to protect the high fluid-milk price from these two sources of competition.

(2) The major part of the milk in the market was distributed by firms employing union drivers under a contract guaranteeing the highest basic wage in the history of the industry,⁹ although it was possible to avoid this added cost by distribution through vendors. Unemployment among milk drivers, resulting from the depression, had increased the number of potential vendors.

(3) Store distribution had not been developed very extensively, despite the lower costs of such distribution as compared with home delivery. Retail prices of home-delivered and store milk had been maintained at the same level for more than 7 years, and as a result there had been little incentive to the customer for buying at the store. Some cut-rate stores had appeared in Chicago before 1932, but they were not very numerous.

(4) The decline in consumer incomes resulting from the depression created strong consumer pressure for milk at lower prices.

In May 1932, Meadowmoor Dairies, Inc., entered the Chicago market, prepared to distribute milk through vendors exclusively. It was not the first firm to oppose the organized market, but it was the largest and proved to be one of the most successful. It attracted the greatest amount of public attention and before long became the symbol of cut-rate competition.

Meadowmoor and some other distributors made the most of all their advantages in the Chicago market. They bought milk from farmers at a "flat price," distributed it through vendors, and began an aggressive exploitation of store distribution. With the lower costs made possible by this method of operation, they were able to undersell successfully all distributors who were under contract to pay cooperative fluid-milk prices and to pay the union wage scale.

By means of price cutting and promoting the cut-rate method of store distribution, as well as through the nonunion-vendor system, Meadowmoor rapidly rose to a position of importance in the Chicago market. Under the pressure of this competition, prices to the farmer began to break, the union agreed to two reductions (amounting in all to \$10 per week) in basic rates of milk-wagon drivers, retail prices of milk began to fall, and the volume of sales of the large distributors declined. The long period of unsettled market conditions, legal controversy, and violence had begun. The strenuous opposition of the Pure Milk Association, the Associated Milk Dealers, and the union to Meadowmoor and the growing number of cut-rate distributors failed, however, to dislodge the vendor system and to regain the pre-1930 equilibrium.

The Milk Wagon Drivers' Union attempted to organize the vendor companies and convert them to an employee wage system. Their approaches, however, were consistently rebuffed by the vendors and the cut-rate distributors, and even after numerous outbreaks of violence by individual drivers, the vendor companies remained aloof from any relationship with the organized market. Picketing of the vendors' primary outlet, the cut-rate stores, began in 1934 and might well have compelled agreement had it been able to continue unmolested, but injunctions against picketing were obtained by vendor

⁹ A 5-year contract was negotiated in May 1927 between union dealers and Local 753, setting rates for retail routemen at \$50 per week plus commissions.

companies. Two legal disputes involving injunctions reached the United States Supreme Court, the more important of which the union lost.

The victory of the union in the Lake Valley case,¹⁰ in which the bill for injunction was dismissed, was greatly overshadowed by its unsuccessful legal defense against Meadowmoor Dairies, Inc.¹¹ In their strenuous efforts to force Meadowmoor to conform to the established practices of the market, the drivers succeeded only in erecting a wall around the Meadowmoor business through which not even a peaceful picket could penetrate. The record and decisions of the courts hearing the case leave no doubt as to the extent and direction of the violence, but Mr. Justice Reed in his dissent pointed out that "there is no finding that violence was planned or encouraged by the union." What moved the union members to violence was undoubtedly the threat to their jobs and income offered by the Meadowmoor competition and the "gangster" stigma that had been attached in the minds of the drivers to that kind of competition.

Meadowmoor filed the original bill of complaint on February 2, 1935, but the final decision of the Supreme Court was not handed down until February 10, 1941. It sustained the lower court's permanent injunction against picketing.

The period of fluctuating prices and sharp changes in established practices inaugurated by the cut-rate distributors brought distress to the members of the Pure Milk Association and the Associated Milk Dealers. In 1933, producers and dealers sought relief through the Agricultural Adjustment Act, in the form of controlled producer and retail prices, but this proved to be ineffective. Numerous violations and widespread dissatisfaction caused the abandonment of retail-price control after a few months and finally resulted in the cancellation of the market agreement early in 1935. The various methods devised to control and limit competition thereafter eventually led to charges of violation of the Sherman Act and to the indictment of the entire organized market under that charge.

The indictment charging violation of the Sherman Act since January 1935 was handed down by a grand jury on November 1, 1938, at the request of the Federal Department of Justice. The indictment covered 14 corporations and associations and 43 individuals, the principal defendants being 10 major distributors selling approximately 65 percent of the fluid milk sold in Chicago; the Associated Milk Dealers, Inc., dominated by major distributors; the Pure Milk Association, controlling 80 percent of milk produced on approved dairy farms; the Milk Dealers' Bottle Exchange, a corporation engaged in collecting, exchanging, and distributing milk bottles, cans, and other containers used by distributors—dominated and controlled by major distributors who owned 80 percent of the stock; and Milk Wagon Drivers' Union Local 753, 75 percent of whose members were employed by major distributors.

After a 2-year interval of dilatory proceedings and controversies, revolving principally around the applicability of the Sherman Act to the Pure Milk Association,¹² a consent decree was entered without trial on September 16, 1940. By this time the Department of Agri-

¹⁰ *Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local 753 v. Lake Valley Farm Products, Inc.*, 311 U. S. 91.

¹¹ *Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local 753 et al. v. Meadowmoor Dairies, Inc.*, 312 U. S. 287.

¹² *Cl. United States v. Borden Co. et al.*, 308 U. S. 183.

culture, at the request of the Pure Milk Association,¹³ had drawn up a marketing agreement for Chicago. Consequently the relationship between producers and distributors with regard to setting prices, fixing quantities, etc., of milk, could no longer be subject to antitrust procedure, but all the restraints, compulsions, coercions, and agreements that might spring up around the marketing agreement were enjoined.

Thus, the Pure Milk Association was enjoined from interfering in the activities of independents, from interfering in the sale of milk in Chicago, and from refusing to sell to any distributor because of his sales policy or price. The Associated Milk Dealers and the major distributors were enjoined from agreeing upon prices to be charged, from interfering with the prices, sales policy and method of distribution of any distributor in Chicago, and from interfering in the affairs of the Pure Milk Association and the Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local 753. The Bottle Exchange was enjoined from committing acts of favoritism, such as delaying and refusing to return milk bottles to distributors who refused to purchase milk at agreed prices.

The union was enjoined from attempting to set prices, from preventing competition for customers, from placing restrictions on store sales, milk depots, vendors, size and type of container, size and type of vehicles used, the kind of dairy products distributed, the manner of solicitation of business, the use of more than one employee on the delivery truck, and the purchase of the business of any dairy. The union was further enjoined from denying membership to any qualified driver employed by a distributor because of price policy, and from hindering the delivery of milk by force or violence. The union was not prevented from using lawful means to organize the vendors.

Milk Prices

Data on consumption and prices of fluid milk in Chicago are inadequate for even a rough approximation of the interrelationship. Research in other markets, admittedly lacking in proper data, indicate relatively slight changes in consumption as compared to changes in price. This indication is supported by opinion in the industry. Consumers in the middle and upper income groups may react sluggishly to price changes, but in the lower income group a large untapped market for milk and milk products exists. To reach this market requires first of all a low enough price and second a program of education and advertising.

TREND OF PRICES PAID BY DISTRIBUTOR

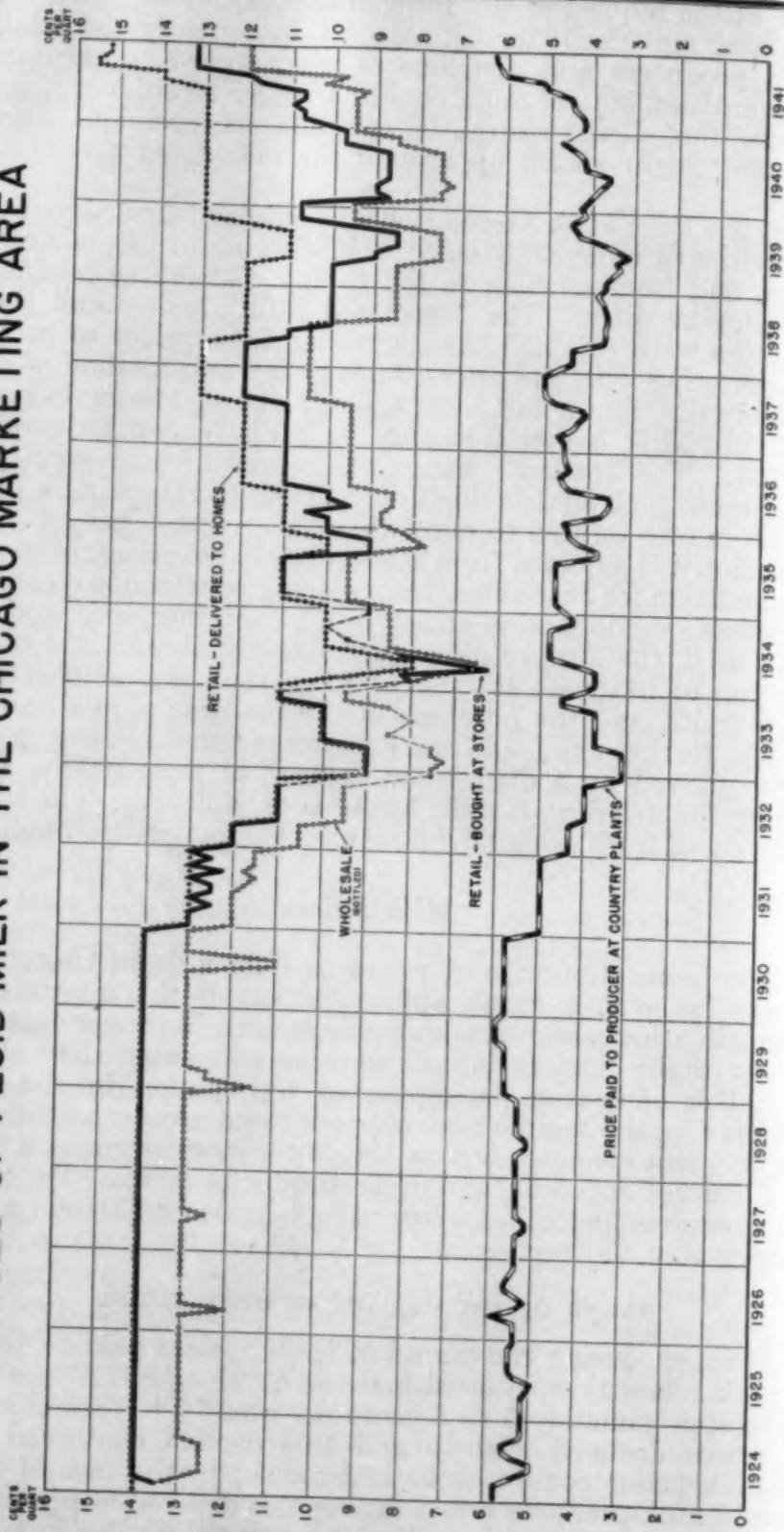
In Chicago, during the period 1923-30, prices paid to farmers for fluid milk (class I) fluctuated between \$2.25 and \$2.67 per hundred-weight (approximately 5 to 6 cents per quart).¹⁴ (See chart 2.) In 1931 prices declined slightly and this decline continued in 1932. Fluid-milk prices could not be maintained in the face of the sharp decline in milk-products prices during this depression period, and the Pure Milk Association was finding increasing difficulty in meeting the

¹³ On December 15, 1938, 1 week after arraignment in the District Court, the Pure Milk Association petitioned the Department of Agriculture for a hearing on a proposed milk-marketing agreement. The agreement went into effect in September 1939.

¹⁴ All prices to farmers are based on fluid milk of 3.5 percent butterfat. These prices are subject to butterfat and location differentials. Milk is bought from the farmer by the hundred pounds (46.5 quarts).

PRICES OF FLUID MILK IN THE CHICAGO MARKETING AREA

CHART 2



WHEN TWO PRICES ARE REPORTED A DASH & AVERAGE HAS BEEN USED.
Source: AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE, DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

NO PRICE REPORTED

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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competition of new or irregular sources of supply. By the early part of 1933, prices to farmers had reached the lowest level in the history of the Chicago market—\$1.45 per hundredweight (a little more than 3 cents per quart).

Faced with this problem, dairy farmers saw in the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933 a possible solution. Producers and dealers, therefore, worked out an agreement for the Chicago market and presented it to the Department of Agriculture on May 12, the day the act was signed. The agreement finally put into effect in August 1933 provided that producers should receive \$1.75 per hundredweight for fluid milk and set resale prices and a schedule of fair trade practices. The agreement was accepted voluntarily by some dealers and was imposed upon others by the issuance of a blanket license covering all handlers in the market.

The policy of resale-price fixing of the agreement was subject to so much attack, and violations were so numerous, that it was finally abandoned in January 1934 and a new policy was put into operation whereby agreements were to be made between producers and the AAA, and distributors would be licensed to live up to the agreement. The price to farmers for fluid milk was set at \$1.75 per hundredweight and the spread between fluid milk and manufactured milk was narrowed. This agreement remained in effect until March 2, 1935, when it was canceled at the request of the Pure Milk Association. By that time prices to farmers were almost at the 1931 level. From then until September 1939, there was no AAA control in Chicago.

The general improvement in business conditions in 1937 brought the farmers' prices back to the 1931 level of \$2.32 per hundredweight, but from this point prices consistently declined until in June 1939 the price was equal to the low point of 1933 (a little over 3 cents per quart).

In December 1938, the Pure Milk Association petitioned the Department of Agriculture for a hearing on a proposed milk-marketing agreement and the resulting Federal Marketing Order No. 41 went into effect September 1, 1939.¹⁵

By November 1939, the price had recovered to 4½ cents, and since that time has been below 4 cents only during one brief period in 1940. The year 1941 was one of consistently rising prices for fluid milk. By the end of the year the farmer was receiving the highest price in the entire history of the industry, 6¼ cents per quart. This increase in price is due, in large part, to the stimulus of large-quantity "lend-lease" buying of manufactured milk products, which will not only continue but will undoubtedly increase during the war period and well into the post-war period. Whether or not the war and post-war period will necessitate a significant curtailing of milk for the fluid-milk market to meet the need for manufactured milk remains to be seen.

¹⁵ All distributors in the Chicago market are subject to the price regulations of this order. In the case of *United States v. Wrightwood Dairy Co.* (10 U. S. Law Week, p. 4192), February 2, 1942, the Supreme Court stated: "We conclude that the national power to regulate the price of milk moving interstate into the Chicago, Ill., marketing area, extends to such control over intrastate transactions there as is necessary and appropriate to make the regulation of the interstate commerce effective; and that it includes authority to make like regulations for the marketing of intrastate milk whose sale and competition with the interstate milk affects the price structure so as in turn to affect adversely the Congressional regulation."

TREND OF STANDARD RETAIL PRICES ¹⁶

Standard retail prices are the prices established and announced by the larger distributors in the market. Prior to 1932, practically all milk in the Chicago market was sold at these prices.

From the middle of 1923 until the beginning of 1931, the retail price of fluid milk in Chicago was 14 cents a quart for both home-delivered and store milk. After a 1-cent drop in January 1931, store and home-delivered prices held at around 13 cents for the entire year. It was not until 1932 that, under the pressure of competition of distributors and vendors who were selling milk below the "standard" price, retail prices of milk began a downward spiral. By the early part of 1933, the standard price of fluid milk had dropped to 9 cents a quart, but the AAA set the retail price at 10 cents a quart in August of that year and before the end of the year had increased it to 11 cents.

There was no differential between the price of home-delivered milk and milk bought at the stores, until 1934. In January of that year, as a result of competition of roadside stands and cut-rate stores, chain stores started charging 1 cent less than the home-delivered price. The entire year was one of unstable prices, with store prices of milk reaching as low as 6 cents a quart and home-delivered prices falling to 8 cents a quart. By the latter part of 1935, a 1-cent differential between regular store and home-delivered price had been established, and in 1938 this differential was increased to 2 cents per quart, which continued until early in 1940.

In January 1940, immediately after a 2-cent increase to 13 cents per single quart for home-delivered milk, the larger dairies introduced multiple containers, half gallon and gallon, for home deliveries. At the same time, the Meadowmoor Dairy announced that its milk would be available at stores for 8½ cents per single quart. As a result, during most of 1940 the standard prices to Chicago consumers for milk delivered to their homes was 13 cents per single quart, 22 cents per half gallon, and 40 cents per gallon, while store prices were as much as 4½ cents cheaper per single quart. In February 1940, Chicago dealers reported a 10- to 15-percent increase in dollar sales in the three areas where they first introduced multiple containers.¹⁷ Part of this increase may have been due to a shift in sales from store or depot to homes,¹⁸ although during most of 1940 the store price remained more than 4 cents below the home-delivered price. Paper containers were introduced during that year, after a long and bitter legal controversy, but appear to have had little effect as yet upon the industry.

In the summer of 1941 the established retail price of milk again rose 1 cent and another increase of 1½ cents, effective in the fall, brought the standard price to 15½ cents a single quart for home-delivered milk and 13 and 13½ cents for store milk.¹⁹ According to the distributors, this increase was necessitated by the increase

¹⁶ Except as noted, the discussion of prices in this section of the report is based on the retail prices released monthly by the Agricultural Marketing Service of the Department of Agriculture. According to the Agricultural Marketing Service, these prices are based on voluntary reports of the larger distributors in Chicago and represent the established or prevailing prices. They do not reflect the prices of milk sold below the established price.

¹⁷ Chicago Federal Milk Market Administrator. Reporter, February 1940.

¹⁸ The University of Illinois, Department of Agriculture Economics, estimated that, by 1940, 52 percent of the commercial milk on retail routes in Chicago was sold in gallon and half-gallon lot quantities (either in quart containers or multiple containers). A. E. 1575, February 1941, p. 23.

¹⁹ The chain-store price was 13 cents a quart.

in prices to farmers, which began in the summer of 1940 and was still continuing.

DEVIATION OF ACTUAL PRICE FROM STANDARD PRICE

Beginning in 1932, actual prices of milk delivered by some vendors to homes as well as to cut-rate stores were below the standard price, but no detailed information is available on trend of such prices. Data have been obtained, however, by the Bureau of Labor Statistics²⁰ on actual prices of grade "A" milk (i. e., standard fresh milk) sold in quart bottles during the winter of 1941-42 by 152 drivers and 164 vendors.

The sale of milk to different customers at different prices per quart is not unusual in the Chicago market. The giving of quantity discounts is an accepted practice among both drivers and vendors, having been encouraged since January 1940 by the need of meeting the competition from half-gallon and gallon containers. According to the Bureau's findings during the winter of 1941-42, prices per quart received by drivers for home-delivered milk ranged from 12 to 15½ cents, and vendors sold milk to homes at from 11 to 18½ cents per quart. (Chart 3.)

Variations in price are more common in sales of milk delivered to homes than in sales to stores, and larger proportions of vendors than of drivers vary their prices. Three-fourths of the vendors who delivered to homes and approximately one-third (32.5 percent) of those who delivered to stores sold milk for more than one price per quart. Less than two-fifths (36.4 percent) of the drivers serving homes and only 13 percent of those serving stores received more than one price for a quart of milk.

For the major portion (60.6 percent) of their milk delivered to homes in quart bottles, drivers received the "standard" price of 15½ cents per quart, while vendors received the standard price for only 2.2 percent of their home-delivered milk. The average price of all milk delivered in quart bottles by drivers to home trade was 15 cents and the average for vendors was 13.7 cents a quart.

The standard price of 12 cents per quart bottle was received for 85.1 percent of the milk delivered to stores by drivers and for 33.1 percent of the milk sold to stores by vendors. There was only a slight difference in the average prices received by drivers and vendors for milk sold in quart bottles to stores (11.9 cents and 11.5 cents, respectively). (Chart 3.) During this same period, roadside stands just outside the marketing area were selling pasteurized milk for as little as 11 cents a single quart, 21 cents a half gallon, and 39 cents a gallon.

COST COMPONENTS IN THE PRICE OF MILK

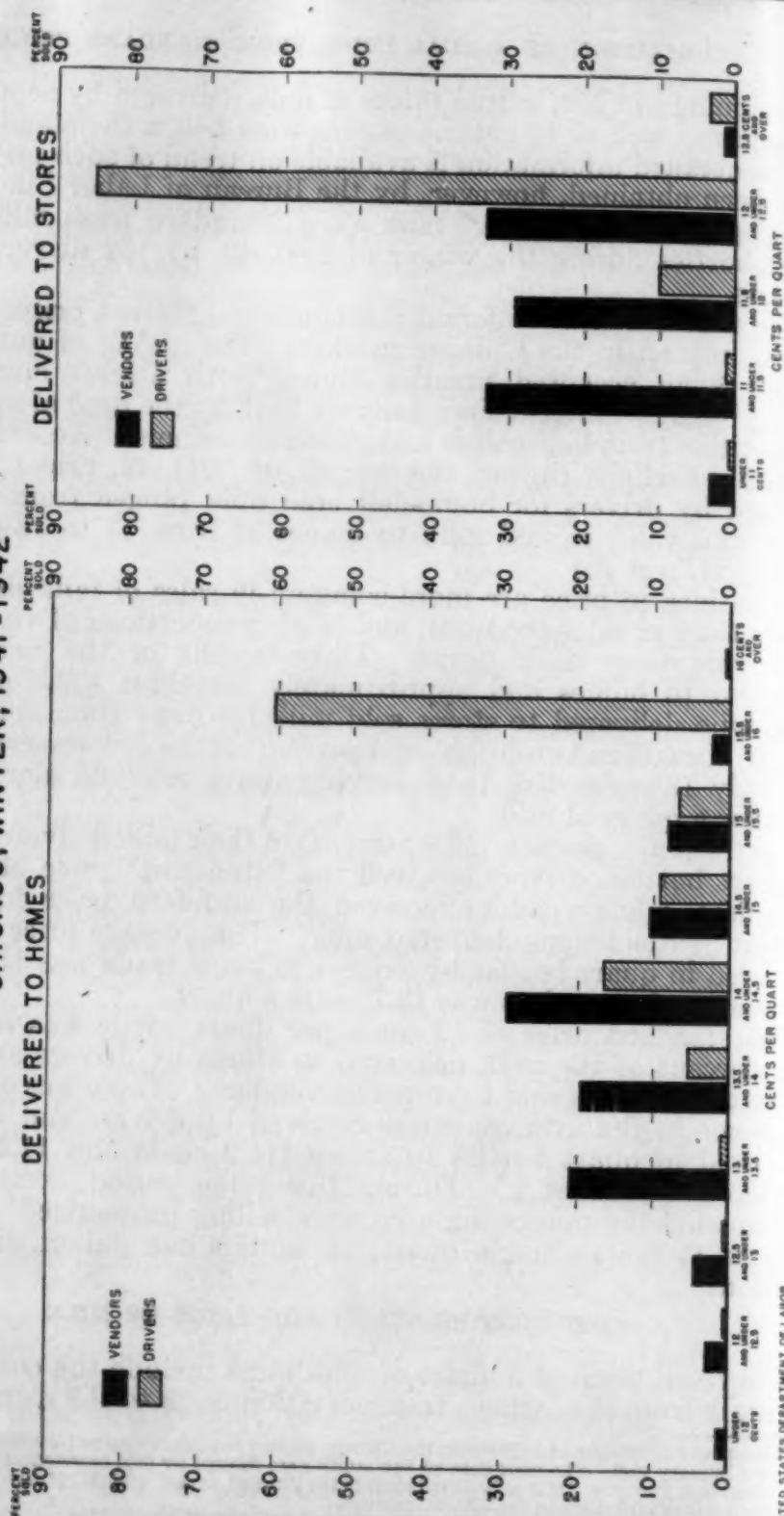
The retail price of a quart of milk must include the cost of buying raw milk from the farmer, transportation costs to the distributor, the

²⁰ The survey of vendors and drivers in the Chicago market was made during November and December 1941, and January 1942. The basic data for this study were secured by field representatives of the Bureau from two primary sources: (1) 36 milk distributors in the Chicago market, and (2) 168 drivers and 180 vendors engaged in milk distribution in the Chicago market.

The 36 distributors scheduled, representing firms from large to small, handled the major portion of the milk in the Chicago market, and were estimated to represent approximately 75 percent of all workers engaged in the milk-distributing industry in Chicago. The principal data secured from the distributors dealt with drivers, since the firms have little information about the vendors, who operate as independent businessmen. The 168 drivers were chosen at random from the pay rolls of the 36 firms and the 180 vendors were taken at random from a Chicago Board of Health list of vendors and companies from whom they purchased milk. The vendors and drivers were interviewed in their homes by field representatives of the Bureau.

ACTUAL PRICES RECEIVED BY SELECTED VENDORS AND DRIVERS FOR GRADE "A" MILK IN ONE QUART BOTTLES

CHICAGO, WINTER, 1941-1942



distributor's pasteurization and other plant costs, and delivery costs. In the Chicago market the farmer was receiving approximately 6½ cents per quart in December 1941. According to estimates of distributors, the cost of transporting milk to the plant and the cost of processing amounts to less than 2 cents a quart, with administrative costs possibly an additional quarter of a cent per quart. This means that in December 1941 the cost of milk at the platform ready for delivery was approximately 8½ cents a quart.

The difference between this price of 8½ cents and the retail price represents the cost of delivery plus any profit which the distributor, vendor, or retail store may be able to realize. Cost of delivery includes wages of drivers, relief men, and certain other employees, social-security contributions, drivers' vacations, special delivery, maintenance, depreciation on trucks, etc. It is estimated that the driver delivering to homes is paid about 4 cents per quart in wages and commission. This wage is not solely for delivery of milk, but includes other services rendered by the driver, such as sales promotion, collections, and some bookkeeping.

Driver cost for delivery to stores is considerably smaller than that for home delivery, but cost to the consumer is augmented by the stores' handling charges.

Despite the roughness of these estimates it is apparent that a very substantial portion of the retail price received for a quart of milk is for delivery cost. Consequently, any increase in the efficiency of distribution should result in an appreciable saving to the consumer in the form of lower retail prices. More efficient distribution might be accomplished by eliminating special deliveries, resorting to every-other-day deliveries, or better planning in order to secure shorter and more concentrated routes. Any possible gains of this type, however, must be balanced against a possible reduction in the quality of consumer service and the threat of serious unemployment among workers engaged in milk delivery.

IMPORTANCE OF STORE DISTRIBUTION

According to the best available information, it seems evident that well over half the fluid milk sold at retail in Chicago at the present time is distributed through stores. The shift from home delivery to store distribution has taken place largely during the past decade. In 1929 only about one-fifth of all fluid milk sold to consumers in Chicago was distributed through stores, but by 1939 the proportion had increased to 46 percent and in 1940 approximately half of all milk retailed in Chicago was bought from stores.²¹ Sales data submitted to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the three largest distributors in Chicago show an increase in store sales from 29 percent in 1936 to 51 percent of total fluid milk sold at retail in the winter of 1940-41. None of these estimates includes fluid milk sold at wholesale to restaurants, hotels, hospitals, and institutions. If this were added to the milk wholesaled to stores, the percentage of milk being delivered to homes would probably be less than 40 percent of the total fluid milk distributed in the Chicago marketing area. (Chart 1, p. 1285.)

The increasing importance of store sales in Chicago is indicated by the information concerning store routes operated which was obtained

²¹ Estimates from University of Illinois, Agricultural Experimental Station Bulletins, and Department of Agricultural Economics, 1939 and 1941.

from the distributors included in the Bureau's survey. Of 25 distributors who had been in business since 1932, only 13 operated store routes in 1932, the number of routes being 61. By 1939, 15 of the 25 distributors operated 296 store routes; in 1940, 17 of them operated 302 store routes; and in 1941 the number of store routes of these 17 distributors increased to 306. In December 1941 only 8 of the 25 distributors had no store routes.

The trend from home deliveries to store sales of milk is not peculiar to the Chicago market only, but is characteristic of most of the large markets. Chain stores have changed the buying habits of a large body of consumers. Many persons who formerly bought from stores operating on a "credit-and-delivery" system began buying from those on a "cash-and-carry" basis in order to obtain lower food costs.²²

Another factor tending to increase the sale of milk through stores is the margin in price between home-delivered and store milk. With store prices of milk in many cities from 2 cents to 5 cents lower than prices of home-delivered milk, more and more consumers have taken advantage of this saving. In fact, it appears that the differential between store and home price has been more important than the absolute level of store prices in the growth of store distribution; although purchasing milk at the store may by now be a consumer habit not easily broken even if the differential were decreased.

While it is true that the growth of the vendor system encouraged the trend toward store distribution, present sales of milk to stores in Chicago are by no means confined to vendors. On the contrary, the large firms employing drivers have captured much of the chain-store trade as well as other store trade. The sales of vendors and drivers interviewed in the survey indicated that approximately 43 percent of drivers' sales of grade "A" milk and 49 percent of vendors' sales of grade "A" were made to stores. The proportion of milk delivered to stores by drivers is probably underestimated, since the Bureau's sample appears to be representative of sales of "wholesale drivers."

Present indications are that the trend toward store distribution is growing and probably will continue to grow. Recent restrictions on the use of rubber for tires may act to encourage the change by curtailing home deliveries. In some cities every-other-day deliveries have been inaugurated, while in many others plans are being made to reduce the number of milk wagons.

This situation presents a serious problem to the workers, a problem which appears to be technological in character. The change in the method of distribution, from a system by which milk was primarily delivered to homes to one by which most milk is distributed to stores, of necessity leads to a displacement of drivers. The present demand for labor resulting from the war effort, however, can be expected to reduce the distress resulting from the transition.

Labor Problems in Milk Delivery

CHARACTERISTICS OF DRIVERS AND VENDORS

The typical driver distributing milk in Chicago in the winter of 1941-42, according to the information received from interviews, was

²² University of Illinois, Department of Agricultural Economics, Report 986, 1938 (mimeographed).
²³ Scientific studies made by several colleges and universities have shown that prices at food chain stores have ranged from 8.4 percent to 14.3 percent below those of individual retailers operating in the same cities. The average price being at least 10 percent lower.

er."

about 42 years old.²³ He had been a milk-wagon driver for nearly 15 years and had served his present employer for more than 11 years. The typical vendor was approximately the same age but had been a vendor for only about 4 years. Almost half (87) of the vendors interviewed had been formerly employed as milk-wagon drivers and 17 others had been connected with the dairy industry in some other capacity.

A study of the individual histories indicates that 72 percent of the vendors had made no change in source of supply, as compared with 62 percent of the drivers who had remained with the same employer. This difference, however, appears to have resulted primarily from the relatively shorter life of the vendor system, since an analysis of changes made during the past 10 years reveals that the proportion of vendors who changed sources of supply was larger than that of drivers who changed employers.

Among the several factors making for continuity of employment or (in the case of vendors) maintenance of the source of supply, the practice of selling dairy products by brand name probably exerts the strongest influence. Vendors and drivers are reluctant to abandon the product name upon which their routes were built. Furthermore, conditions of employment under a standard union agreement tend to be equalized throughout the market. A clause in the union contract forbids "stripping the route" for 2 years after termination of employment; it is not improbable that a study of contracts signed by vendors and distributors might reveal a similar restriction.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN WORKING CONDITIONS OF DRIVERS AND VENDORS

The Chicago "milkman," whether an employee or vendor, brings milk and numerous other milk products²⁴ from the loading platform of the distributor to the household doorstep and store refrigerator, either by wagon or truck. He is also the sole point of contact between the industry and the customer, and as such he must solicit trade, sell the product, bill the customer, make collections, adjust complaints, and keep the customer and the distributor satisfied.

Custom and tradition have formulated two practices, both of which were instituted during the days of inadequate refrigeration, which make the delivery job more hazardous than it would ordinarily be. The practice of daily delivery often subjects the milkman to harsh weather and other difficulties, while early-morning delivery entails some work before daybreak.

At the time this study was made the daily routine of the Chicago milk-wagon driver began around 4:45 a. m., the earliest starting time permitted by the union contract. The driver loaded his wagon or truck, at the plant door, with the items ordered on the previous afternoon and, after icing his load, began his deliveries after 5:15 a. m.²⁵ Deliveries and collections occupied him during the remainder

²³ The ages of drivers and vendors ranged from under 25 years to over 60. A greater percentage of vendors (45.3) than drivers (40.7) reported ages below 40 years, but 25.6 percent of the vendors were 50 years or older as compared to 13.7 percent of the drivers.

²⁴ One large dairy in Chicago sells 30 dairy products which, packed in various sizes and types of containers, amount to over 90 different packages. The quart bottle of grade "A" milk, however, is still the principal item in the list and the storm center of competition.

²⁵ For many years the union restricted deliveries during the months from September to June to the starting time of 8 a. m., but this restriction was dropped by the current agreement.

of the morning, and often extended into the early afternoon. He then reported back to the station where he unloaded his extras, made out tickets for bottles, jugs, and cans returned, listed his collections which he turned over to the cashier, wrote his daily report, put in his next day's orders, and unhitched his horse or refilled his gasoline tank. Once a month he had to balance his accounts, make out statements, write up a new book, and transfer accounts from the old to the new book.

Legal and economic relations to the distributor.—The difference between drivers and vendors lies in the legal and economic relations of each to the distributor. Milk-wagon drivers are employed by dairy firms or corporations and receive a guaranteed wage plus, as a rule, a commission based on weekly or monthly sales. The distributor furnishes the product, the ice, and the truck or wagon used for delivery, and provides for its operation, maintenance, and repair. The driver receives the protection of such social legislation as workmen's compensation, old-age insurance, unemployment insurance, etc., at least part of which are paid for by the distributing firms. In addition, through the trade-union, a driver is afforded a certain security in his job, while his wages, hours, and working conditions are protected by the union contract.

As small businessmen, milk vendors have certain responsibilities of business ownership requiring them to arrange for the purchase of the milk and other dairy products in which they deal, and in some cases the ice or other means of refrigeration.²⁶ The vendor purchases milk and other products from the distributor, sells to whoever will buy, and charges whatever the trade will bear. The vendor must provide and maintain his own equipment, hire his own relief man, helper or driver, and finance the risks of business. The difference between the cost of his milk and his receipts, less the expenses of doing business, is his net income. Part of this income, theoretically, represents payment for services rendered, and the excess, if any, represents a return on his investment and profits for risks undertaken. It is probable that the typical vendor, in his neglect of bookkeeping practices, underestimates or disregards his indirect expenses such as bad debts, depreciation, license fees, etc., and, as a consequence, is often subjected by the forces of a highly competitive market to a fairly long career as a submarginal distributor. In any event, the material gains of the vendor in the form of net income, plus any psychic gain that he may derive from his status as an independent businessman, must compensate him for his foregoing the security of a guaranteed wage, unemployment insurance, workmen's compensation, old-age insurance, and trade-union protection.

Regularity of employment and hours of work.—In spite of its day-to-day fluctuations, the fluid-milk industry is not a seasonal industry. Reports of the Federal Milk Market Administrator, for 1940 and 1941, indicate that the quantity of sales varies less than 5 percent between the low month and peak month. It therefore provides a fairly steady flow of work to those engaged in the distribution of milk.

Although the milk-delivery business is operated largely on a 7-day week plan, the individual drivers and many of the other employees are required to work only 6 days. The distributing firms usually employ relief men, 1 for each 6 drivers, who substitute for drivers

²⁶ Most of the distributors in the survey (84 percent) furnished part or all of the ice used by vendors, mainly for the purpose of assuring proper care for their products.

when the latter are off duty. The union contract provides for a 9-hour day and 54-hour week for the drivers, but actual hours often exceed this.

Hours worked by vendors are not regulated by the company nor set by union agreement, and therefore accurate information is not available on their actual hours. The majority of vendors (78.3 percent) interviewed in the survey worked 7 days a week, and only 20 percent of them worked 6 days.

Characteristics of routes.—The typical route in the Chicago market for both driver and vendor, according to the survey, was a combination or mixed route serving both stores and homes. Approximately 80 percent of the drivers and 77 percent of the vendors interviewed had this type of route.

The significant difference in driver and vendor routes was in their length, vendor routes being much longer on the average than driver routes. The drivers traveled on the average 22 miles (from plant back to plant) daily to serve their trade, whereas the vendors averaged 37 miles daily, with a significant proportion (19.5 percent) traveling 52 miles or more. The difference in the length of route was even more striking when distance from first to last stop only was considered, vendors traveling almost twice as far as drivers (30 and 15 miles, respectively). In relating the length of driver routes from first to last stop to the size of the distributor, an inverse relationship is revealed; that is, the larger the distributor the smaller the territory covered by each driver.

In terms of number of customers, driver routes were seemingly much more concentrated than those of vendors. Despite the relative shortness of their routes, drivers averaged 150 stops each day while vendors averaged 117 stops each day. The vendor stops, however, were worth slightly more per week than driver stops when the value of all sales per stop was computed, the respective figures being \$2.61 and \$2.28. Vendor stops showed a similar excess value per stop in terms of grade "A" milk only, and for store and home trade taken separately. Sufficient information on the total quantities of milk or other products delivered by drivers and vendors was not available to determine the concentration of routes in terms of quantity.

Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local 753.—The Milk Wagon Drivers' Union, Local 753, is a local of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen, and Helpers of America, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor.

Local 753 extends its jurisdiction over all outside workers employed by Chicago milk dealers and has enlisted virtually all these workers. In addition to those engaged in distributing milk to the consumer, solicitors, adjusters, route foremen, tank men, truckers, and van men are eligible for membership, and are covered by the standard union agreement. A union shop is maintained, with an initiation fee of \$100, and annual dues of \$72. Vendors are eligible for membership but as they are not employees, strictly speaking, they occupy a unique position in the union structure.

Local 753 was organized on September 13, 1902. The first printed agreement, establishing a \$15 a week wage plus commissions, was put into effect in April 1905. Basic rates rose slowly to \$22 weekly by 1918, but rapid increases followed thereafter until the high level of \$50 in 1927 was reached (table 1). Making allowance for changes in the general price level, it is evident that real earnings of the milk-

wagon drivers increased at a remarkable rate.²⁷ Part of the increase may be explained in terms of the benefits obtained through organization, but an important source of the rise in wages lay also in the industry's increasing ability to pay. The increase in the union scale in the form of additions to the basic rate rather than changes in commission rates appeared, however, to press more heavily upon the unit costs of the smaller than of the larger distributors²⁷ to the advantage of the latter.

TABLE 1.—Union Wage Rates for Retail Milk-Route Men in Chicago, 1920-41¹

Period rate was in effect	Basic ² rate per week	Method of determination
May 1, 1920, to April 30, 1924.....	\$41.00	Negotiation.
May 1, 1924, to April 30, 1927.....	45.00	Do.
May 1, 1927, to April 30, 1932.....	50.00	Do.
May 1, 1932, to November 30, 1932.....	45.00	Do.
December 1, 1932, to April 30, 1935.....	40.00	Voluntary reduction.
May 1, 1935, to April 30, 1936.....	41.00	1935 arbitration award.
May 1, 1936, to October 31, 1936.....	42.50	Do.
November 1, 1936, to April 30, 1937.....	43.00	Do.
May 1, 1937, to April 30, 1938.....	45.00	Negotiation.
May 1, 1938, to April 30, 1940.....	48.00	Do.
June 1, 1940, to April 30, 1941.....	43.74	Arbitration.
May 1, 1941, onward.....	48.00	Negotiation.

¹ Data are from Federal Trade Commission, op. cit., p. 16-17, 1940 Arbitration Proceedings, and current agreement.

² Commission rates varied during this period.

³ Rate for month of May not determined—arbitrator's award retroactive to the first of June.

The growth of different methods of distribution during the 1930's brought about a severe decline in the employment of drivers and in union membership. Trends in the number of routes operated by Chicago distributors in 1932, 1939, 1940, and 1941 are indicated by data submitted to the Bureau. Twenty-five distributors, operating 4,144 driver routes in 1932, reported a decline to 2,661 driver routes by 1939. During the latter part of 1940, these same 25 firms operated 2,288 driver routes, indicating a continuing decline, but by the winter of 1941 a slight recovery to 2,469 driver routes was registered. Union membership dropped from a high of 7,400 in 1930 to 4,500 in 1940, a 39-percent decline.²⁸

Wage rates of the retail-route man, however, tended to follow the level of prices rather than the level of employment, falling to a low of \$40 per week during the period between December 1, 1932, and May 1, 1935, and rising thereafter, with but one break, to the \$48 scale of the current agreement. The strenuous price competition of this period, only part of which was financed by the dealers, led to unofficial reductions at the point of sale, which were paid for by the route man. Other out-of-pocket expenses resulting from competition for trade further reduced the driver's net earnings and constituted a continuous source of complaint.

In 1937, the commission rate of 60 cents per hundred points²⁹ above 1,333 points was increased to 75 cents and an additional 15 cents paid per hundred points in excess of 4,000 per week. These rates are still in effect. The commission on butter sold at retail is 1 cent per pound; on eggs, 1 cent per dozen; on cheese, 1 cent per jar.

²⁷ In 1921 the workweek was first defined in terms of 6 instead of 7 days. See *Collective Bargaining in Chicago, 1929-1930*, p. 182, by C. L. Christenson, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1933.

²⁸ There has been a slight increase in membership since 1940. Local 753 reported 4,700 members in 1941.

²⁹ According to the union agreement, "a point of goods sold on retail wagons shall consist of 1 quart of milk, 1 pint of milk, 4 one-half pints of milk, 3 one-third quarts of milk, 1 quart of skim, one-half pint or 2 gills of cream, 1 quart of buttermilk."

Retail-route men and store-route men work a 6-day week of 54 hours, including time spent at lunch and at book work. Actual hours often exceed 54, but there are no provisions in the union agreement for the payment of either straight time or penalty rates for a 6-day route running above 54 hours. If a route is too large to be serviced within the proper time schedule, an adjustment in the length of route or size of load is to be made by the employer.

Problems confronting the union.—The union's opposition to the growth of the vendor system during the early part of the 1930's was based on the belief "that the vendor system was a scheme or device utilized for the purpose of escaping the payment of union wages and the assumption of working conditions commensurate with those imposed under union standards."³⁰ The impact of the vendor system, however, was disastrous to the union primarily in that it sponsored and aggressively promoted store distribution, which caused a decline in home deliveries.

The first reaction of the distributors to the decline in home delivery was to eliminate the low-volume routes and consolidate the remaining routes, dropping the unnecessary men. When it became apparent that store distribution was to play a permanent and increasingly important role, each of the large dealers, with one conspicuous exception, set about to obtain a share of the store trade. Store stops were taken off the mixed routes and combined into strictly store routes, and the consolidation of retail and mixed routes continued.

As far as ordinary collective-bargaining practices would permit, the union fought a delaying action; it could not prohibit the creation of store routes, but it could and did refuse to agree to any revision in commission rates on store deliveries. Store-route and commission wholesale men delivering approximately four times the number of points usually delivered on a retail route receive the same commission rate and have a greater opportunity to reach the high premium rate. As a consequence they earn incomes far in excess of their basic pay. This attempt by the union to discourage the transfer of store stops out of the mixed routes has been ineffective. The milk went to the stores and jobs continued to disappear.

With the large dairies entering into store competition, the union's main concern gradually centered in the distribution of the lucrative store business among the drivers and keeping the differential between the retail price of home-delivered milk and store milk as small as possible.

When the union's major efforts to eliminate the vendor system were frustrated by the Meadowmoor case and the antitrust indictment, emphasis was placed upon organizing vendors. In this the union has been quite successful. The enrollment of vendors into the union had been proceeding on a small scale ever since the vendors appeared on the market, but the greater proportion have been organized only recently. Even the Meadowmoor Co., which had resisted the union for 9 years, relinquished the immunity of its injunction in order to sign a union contract in January 1942.

The union vendor.—From the standpoint of organization, the vendors no longer constitute a problem to the union. Almost all (96 percent) of the vendors scheduled in the Bureau's survey held union cards, but it is probable that the percent of union vendors in the whole market is somewhat less than this.

³⁰ *Milk Wagon Drivers' Union v. Lake Valley Farm Products, Inc.*, 311 U. S. 91.

With respect to his membership in a trade-union, the union vendor occupies an anomalous position.³¹ He is not an employee and therefore receives no wages; he has no regulated hours or days of work as set forth in the union agreement; he cannot, by the nature of his position, receive a paid vacation or have his route automatically protected if he does take a vacation; he receives no protection from the union's seniority provisions. On the other hand, membership in the union safeguards his source of supply, as organized dealers and inside workers are bound by the union agreement to service only union vendors. Nonunion dealers supplying nonunion vendors, have found that certain outlets of distribution (principally the large stores) are reluctant to handle their product, and have found it expedient to come to terms with the union.

The unionization of vendors,³² being ineffectual for standardizing income, hours, and conditions of employment, has done only a little to lessen the conflict between the driver and the vendor. The organization of vendors by the union, however, is a relatively recent development and it is perhaps too soon to determine the exact function of the union with regard to vendors. As long as the vendor remains outside the scope of union regulations, he will be considered a threat to union standards.

INCOMES OF DRIVERS AND VENDORS

Gross income and expenditures of drivers.—Of the total income of the 168 drivers interviewed, 87.6 percent represented wages and 12.4 percent commissions. Drivers, however, have certain necessary expenditures, which during the period studied represented deductions of 3.5 percent of their total income. Expenditures of nearly half the drivers amounted to less than 40 cents, with one-fifth of them reporting no expenditures during the week surveyed.

The principal deductions from income resulted from the drivers' efforts to retain their customers. In order to meet the competition of other drivers, as well as of vendors selling at a lower price, some drivers allow customers to have milk at less than the price established by the distributor; or they may continue to serve customers after the company has ordered delivery stopped. Nearly 2 percent (1.9) of the drivers' total income was lost by selling below the established price or by paying the sales tax for customers; bad debts represented six-tenths of 1 percent of their income. Five drivers donated equipment—such as refrigerators or signs—or made cash refunds to stores, as a means of retaining the store's patronage.

Gross income and costs of vendors.—Vendors' earnings can be estimated only in terms of expenses and gross income from sales. Costs of vendors interviewed included the payments for products sold; bottle costs; operation, maintenance, and depreciation of trucks; wages and insurance of drivers, helpers, relief men, and extra help; and miscellaneous expenses for stolen or spoiled milk, bad debts, and such items.

By far the largest expenditure of the vendor was the cost of products purchased, amounting to more than three-fourths (77.1 percent) of total income. The next largest cost item (4.9 percent of total in-

³¹ The portion of the union contract with distributors applying to the vendor provides only that "processor agrees to service only vendors in good standing with the union or those presenting an O. K. card signed by the secretary-treasurer signifying intention to join."

³² The legality of organizing vendors has been open to question. The Consent Decree in the case of *United States of America v. The Borden Co. et al.*, did not prevent the unionization of vendors but stated (p. 43): "It is not intended that this provision shall be construed to be an admission by any of the parties hereto or a finding by the court that the unionization of vendors is lawful or unlawful."

come) was for operation and maintenance of his truck or trucks. The wages of helpers and relief men, including old-age insurance and unemployment-compensation contributions, amounted to 2.2 percent of income. A negligible part of this was for social insurance since the great majority (97.1 percent) of vendors carry no insurance for their employees. Loss from bad debts amounted to four-tenths of 1 percent of gross income.

Net weekly income of drivers and vendors in 1941.—Income data were secured for a 1-week period during the winter months of 1941-42. Although, as stated previously, the milk industry is not a highly seasonal one, consumption of milk tends to be lower during the winter months than at any other time of the year.

There is a strong probability that the monthly or weekly pattern of drivers' incomes, regardless of season of the year, is more stable than the corresponding pattern of vendors' net earnings. In part, this is due to the basic wage, below which drivers' earnings cannot easily fall; in addition, the net earnings of vendors probably tend to fluctuate more closely with total sales than do those of drivers.

The income level of the vendors in the survey was, on the whole, lower than that of drivers. The average weekly income of the vendors was \$46³³ while that of drivers was \$52 (table 2). Approximately seven-tenths (69.5 percent) of the 168 drivers earned from \$45 to \$55 during the week surveyed and only 5.4 percent earned less than \$40, whereas nearly half (47.3 percent) of the 175 vendors had incomes of \$40 or less. A significant proportion (23.4 percent) of vendor incomes fell below \$30 a week and 11.4 percent reported making less than \$20 a week. There was, however, a larger proportion (14.4 percent) of vendors than of drivers (9.6 percent) with weekly incomes of \$65 or more. This last income group was probably influenced by the fact that the Bureau's sample included a proportionate number of master vendors, but not of wholesale drivers.³⁴ (Chart 4.)

TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of Chicago Milk Wagon Drivers and Vendors by Net Weekly Income and Type of Route, Winter of 1941-42

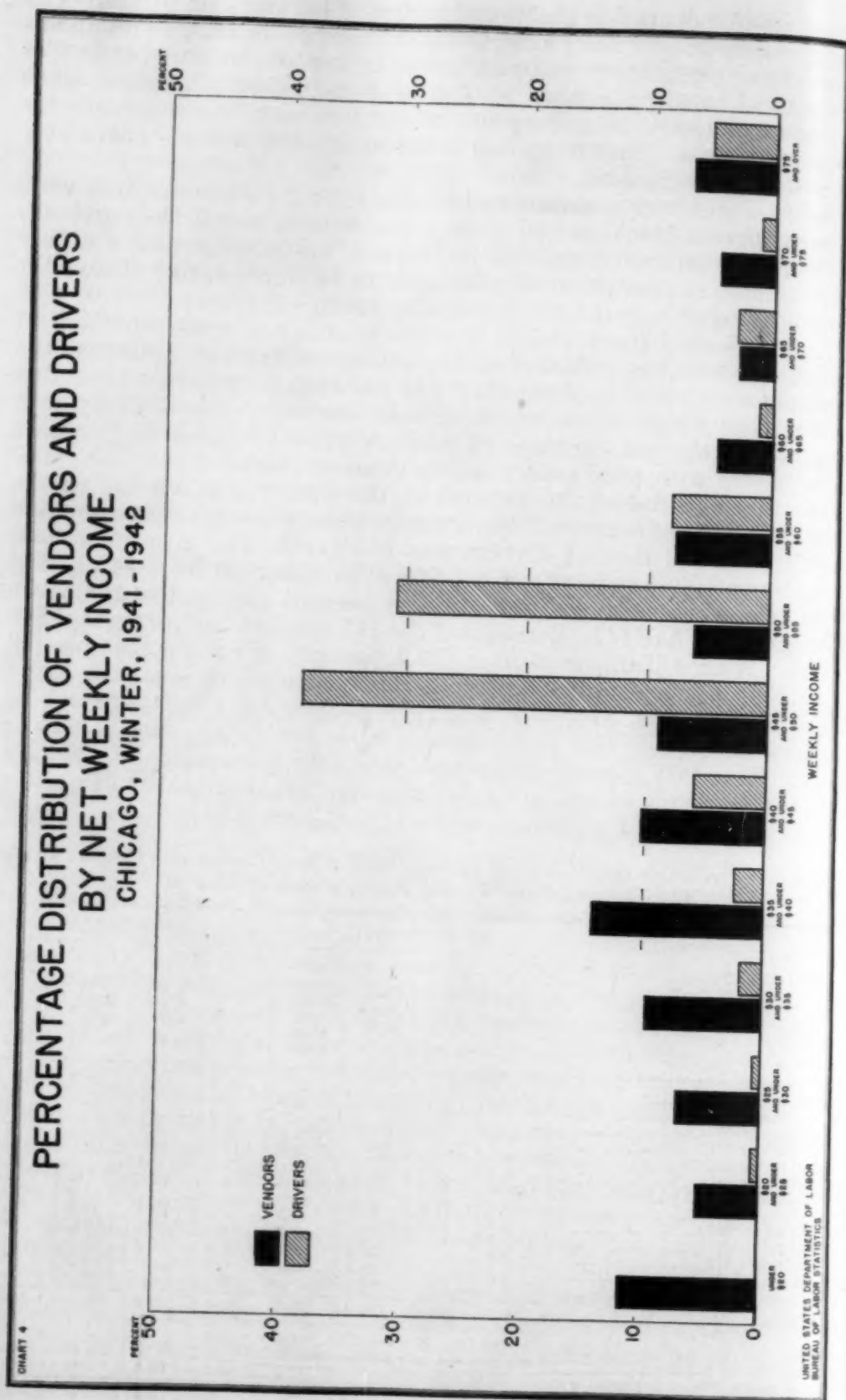
Net weekly income	Drivers on—				Vendors on—			
	All routes	Home stops only	Store stops only	Combination home and store stops	All routes	Home stops only	Store stops only	Combination home and store stops
Under \$20.....					11.4	12.5	13.3	11.0
\$20 and under \$25.....	0.6			0.7	5.1	8.3		5.1
\$25 and under \$30.....	.6			.7	6.9	12.5		6.6
\$30 and under \$35.....	1.8			2.2	9.7	8.3		11.0
\$35 and under \$40.....	2.4			2.9	14.2	8.3		17.0
\$40 and under \$45.....	6.0	5.9		6.6	10.3	8.3		11.9
\$45 and under \$50.....	38.6	47.0	6.7	41.3	9.1	16.8		8.9
\$50 and under \$55.....	30.9	35.3		33.8	6.3		13.3	6.6
\$55 and under \$60.....	8.3	11.8		8.8	8.0	12.5	13.3	6.6
\$60 and under \$65.....	1.2			1.5	4.6	8.3		4.4
\$65 and under \$70.....	3.0		20.0	1.5	2.9	4.2	20.0	.7
\$70 and under \$75.....	1.2		13.3		4.6		6.7	5.1
\$75 and over.....	5.4		60.0		6.9		33.4	5.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number.....	168	17	15	136	175	24	15	136
Average weekly income.....	\$52.15	\$50.02	\$80.59	\$49.28	\$46.13	\$38.98	\$84.86	\$43.13
Percent under \$48.....	16.1	17.6		17.6	63.4	70.8	13.3	67.6

¹ Excludes 5 vendors for whom complete information was not reported. Of these, 1 had home stops only, 1 had store stops only, and 3 ran combination routes.

² The average weekly income of vendors exclusive of master vendors (vendors who operate more than 1 route) was \$44.

³ Wholesale drivers are paid a basic wage of \$49.50 plus commissions under the union contract.

**PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VENDORS AND DRIVERS
BY NET WEEKLY INCOME
CHICAGO, WINTER, 1941-1942**



The basic rate of drivers under the union contract in Chicago is \$48 a week, and by and large this can be considered as the prevailing wage of drivers in that market. Only 16.1 percent of the drivers in the survey received less than that amount per week, while nearly two-thirds (63.4 percent) of the vendors interviewed had incomes of less than \$48 a week. By far the largest number of vendors in this income class operated combination routes, more than two-thirds (67.6 percent) of which yielded incomes below the \$48 level. Over 70 percent of the vendors with home stops only, and 13.3 percent of those with store stops only, had incomes which fell below \$48 a week. If the union's basic wage be regarded as a fair remuneration for the vendors' own labor, it is apparent that most vendors operated their business at a loss.

Examination of the individual reports reveals, further, that none of the drivers earned below \$20 a week in the Chicago market; in the group of vendors earning less than \$20 a week, there were some who reported net incomes of as little as \$5 a week.

The relatively low income level of vendors covered in the survey would appear to justify the claim of the union that vendors constitute a threat to the wage standards of drivers in the Chicago market. To what extent the organization of vendors by the union can offset any of the ill effects of the vendor system on drivers remains to be seen. It is evident, however, that if the vendor's income and hours are not subject to regulation by the union, as long as his income remains at its present level, he will continue to threaten the existing wage level of drivers in Chicago.

Wartime Labor Policies

FOREIGN WORKERS IN GERMAN WAR EFFORTS

By PETER A. SPEEK, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

THE largest group of non-German workers transferred to Germany in the earlier stages of the war consisted of prisoners of war taken during the rush of invasion and the earlier phases of occupation, when no serious effort seems to have been made to distinguish between organized and uniformed military forces and the unfriendly civilian population. Large numbers of civilian workers were in effect conscripted in the conquered countries and taken to Germany, where they were subjected to conditions of forced labor, although efforts were made to maintain nominal agreements and the appearances of consent. The countries not actually conquered but subject to German influence, especially Italy, Hungary, and Bulgaria, also sent workers to Germany. Thus, the number of Italian workers in Germany was greatly increased in 1941 by agreements between the governments of the two countries. Under these agreements, more than 300,000 Italians, mostly from northern Italy, were destined for Germany.

A partial listing of civilian workers in Germany from conquered countries, published in April 1941, included 873,000 Poles, 150,000 Czechs, 90,000 Dutch, 87,000 Belgians, 84,000 Yugoslavs, 69,000 Slovaks, and 31,000 Danes. The numbers from various countries increased rapidly in 1941 as a result of the intensified drive for workers, and rose by early 1942 to approximately 2,500,000. The estimates, however, do not include workers from Russia and the Baltic States, and it is known that these countries suffered large transfers of population. The estimates also exclude the workers classified by the German authorities as prisoners of war. Early in 1942, the number of workers in Germany from the one small country of Belgium was about 250,000, not including prisoners of war. The total from all countries, including war prisoners, probably ranged between five and six millions, and the drive for workers continued. A report from Germany in April 1942 indicated that about 8,000 foreign workers were being brought in each week.

The classifying of civilian workers as war prisoners is illustrated by the treatment of Russians. Early in the war against the Soviet Union, the German army command made almost daily claims to the capture of hundreds of thousands of prisoners. The Russian command denied these claims and asserted that the German military authorities were counting civilians as war prisoners, were herding them together and compelling them to work back of the front lines, and were taking many of them to Germany.

Methods of Procuring Workers

The needs of the Nazi régime for men to maintain war production and replace the increasing number of Germans called to the armed forces were gravely aggravated by the losses of men and supplies in Russia. The number of workers obtained, even when large numbers of civilians were classified as prisoners of war and when these and actual war prisoners were put to work, proved to be increasingly inadequate. After the German advance in Russia was halted, the Nazi authorities, unable to resort to a new succession of conquests, turned with renewed energy to the expansion of their non-German labor supply by methods other than the seizure of civilians as prisoners of war.

German employers are not permitted to make direct arrangements for obtaining non-German workers. It is necessary for an employer to make application to his local labor office. This office transmits the request to the regional employment service. The regional office makes an investigation and forwards the request with its report to the central authorities. The latter ordinarily approve the report and forward the request to the German authorities in the country from which it is desired to obtain workers.

After the conquest of the so-called Nordic countries, related racially to the Germans, efforts were made to procure workers by the use of local unemployment registers and the pay-roll records of local business concerns. When the Germans found that the registers and pay-roll records were not obtainable, they themselves in many areas conducted registrations. Ordinarily, persons between the ages of 14 and 60 were required to register and to indicate their experiences in trades or professions.

The Germans hoped to carry on the actual conscription and mobilizing of workers in conquered countries by the use of the labor offices operated by the local governments, which were sanctioned by the German occupational authorities and popularly known as Quisling governments. Attempts were made to maintain the appearance of legality and of voluntary action, but the labor offices commonly failed to procure the desired workers. Consequently, the Nazi rulers established local labor offices of their own. In their eagerness to obtain workers they even established racial labor offices, as in Poland, for procuring Jewish skilled workers.

The local labor offices in the conquered countries select and procure the desired workers under instructions of the German Ministry of Labor through the German occupational authorities. Unemployed workers who are viewed as meeting the needs of German employers are offered work in Germany. The offer is in effect a demand, enforceable by denial of ration cards, unemployment benefits, etc. Many workers who are already employed are selected for transfer to Germany. Thus, it may be desired to remove workers who are viewed as antagonistic or likely to take the lead in opposition to German rule; or it may be decided that employment in a given industry should be curtailed because of its being regarded as comparatively unimportant in the carrying on of the German war program. Means can be found to bring about the discharge of such workers, thus placing them among the unemployed for the purpose of bringing pressure upon them to "accept" employment in Germany.

The appearance of voluntary action is maintained in various other ways, as by making the support and status of the families of such workers dependent on their "acceptance" of an "offer" of work in Germany. There are indications, however, that qualified workers in some of the occupied countries were offered better terms as to wages and rationing arrangements than they could obtain at home. Such a policy was in keeping with the program of transferring key industries and basic skills to Germany, making the economic life of other countries merely auxiliary or supplementary to that of Germany, and influencing workers in favor of the Nazi "new order."

Formal Adoption of Compulsory Labor

The increasing difficulty of maintaining even the appearance of consent and voluntary acceptance of employment in Germany led to the extension even in Nordic countries of formal labor conscription in addition to compulsory registration. Compulsory work in the Netherlands was ordered in 1941, and a formal decree of March 1942 provided for the compulsory transfer of Dutch workers to Germany for forced labor in that country. The German press, in commenting on this policy, declared that compulsory labor service had been applied to German workers as early as 1938 and that since Germany had undertaken the burden of reorganizing Europe, the German Government was justified in expecting and requiring the workers of occupied regions to become a part of a general European labor system.

An order issued in March 1942, applying to Belgium, provided for the conscription of Belgian workers for labor under the German commanding officer in Brussels, but the order contained no formal authorization for compelling Belgians to work in Germany. Belgium, however, is highly industrialized and in need of a large labor force to maintain full operation of its productive facilities needed by the German Government, and few Belgian workers are available for transfer. Moreover, about 250,000 Belgians, excluding prisoners of war, were already at work in Germany.

In Poland, the occupied areas of Russia, and other Slavic countries, there was from the beginning of the war comparatively little effort by the invaders to carry out a procedure of consent even in legal formality. Information regarding methods adopted in these countries is incomplete. Numerous reports indicate conclusively, however, the use in special areas of such recruiting methods as house-to-house searches, raids, and seizure of workers as in criminal procedure.

Resort to seizure of workers by a process resembling criminal procedure has been reported frequently, especially in Poland. An able-bodied individual who is considered by a German soldier or member of the Gestapo as serviceable for work in Germany may be taken into custody and questioned as to his name, trade, place of work, etc. He is then either released or taken to the local police station or army office, where he is again questioned and given a physical examination and then either released or held with others who have been recruited for transfer to Germany.

Numerous reports indicate that in parts of Poland and some other areas there has been resort to armed raids. Recruiting of workers has been only one of the purposes of this procedure. Other purposes have included the quelling or forestalling of organized opposition to the invaders. It appears also that armed force has been used in some

communities to compel evacuation of the population for resettlement by Germans, and in other communities to segregate the Jews in designated areas. If the purpose of an armed raid is primarily to prevent organized opposition to German rule, the persons drafted into forced labor may be restricted largely to those who are believed to be the leaders of opposition.

Information regarding the policies of the Nazi forces in Poland, the occupied portions of Russia, Yugoslavia, and other Slavic areas, although incomplete, indicates resort in a significant degree to military or police force in the seizure of workers, the taking over of communities, expulsion of populations, and segregation of special groups. These procedures appear to have been accompanied by confiscation of property not only for the use of the occupying forces but also for transfer to Germany.

Distribution of Non-German Workers in Germany

The movement of workers to the boundary of Germany is commonly carried out either at their own expense or at the expense of their people through the Nazi-dominated local governments. The cost of transportation from the German boundary to the place of employment may be advanced either by the German employer or by the Nazi Government, but this cost is later deducted from the wages due the workers.

Nearly half of the non-Germans transferred to Germany were put to work in agriculture and related industries, principally on the large semifeudal estates of northeastern Germany. Many of the women were employed in German families as domestic servants. As a later development, women were pressed increasingly into work in the armaments factories. The non-German workers employed in war industries, on construction projects, and at maintenance work were sent in largest numbers to western Germany, many of the German workers being shifted eastward to areas comparatively free from air raids.

There is evidence of a policy of employing the non-German workers in small groups in which workers of different races and languages are intermingled. It was hoped in this way to prevent the development of clannishness and of possible large-scale plotting or collaboration in opposition to the Nazi authorities.

Status of Foreign Workers in Germany

The Nazi authorities have always tried to maintain the appearance of voluntary contractual relations. Soon after the invasion and occupation of Denmark, Norway, and Holland, efforts were made to establish relations with the peoples of these countries on a basis more nearly approaching equality with Germans than the relations with the Czechs and the Poles and later the Russians. This was in accord with the racial doctrines which give a relatively high status in the "blood hierarchy" to the so-called Nordic types. The application of these racial doctrines was modified by temporary considerations of diplomacy and politics. Thus, it appears that Italian workers and even the workers from Belgium and occupied France were accorded treatment somewhat resembling that given to workers from "Nordic" countries.

The contracts commonly signed early in the war were for 6 months, the understanding being that the workers could then return to their

own countries. Even this appearance of protection of the workers' rights proved to be illusory, for the term was later extended to a year, and later still to cover the duration of the war. Spokesmen of the German Government have gone even farther and stated repeatedly that after the war German employers will need these and additional non-German workers.

WAGES

The cost of the labor of actual war prisoners, whose maintenance is the responsibility of the captors, is approximately the same as would have been the cost of their maintenance if they had not been set to work. The product of their labor is therefore virtually a net gain to the Nazis. The classification of large numbers of civilians as prisoners of war subject to military discipline has enabled the Nazi rulers to reduce the cost of the employment of these workers to the minimum of maintenance on a mass basis. The use of workers in this manner naturally is most economical for road building, rebuilding of devastated areas, agricultural reclamation, and seasonal work on large agricultural estates. These and similar employments call for gang labor and a considerable degree of mobility and make feasible a high degree of discipline and military control.

The wages credited to some of the foreign workers in Germany are the same as the wages paid to German workers for similar types of work, but ordinarily the foreign workers actually receive a smaller wage. This is in part a result of special deductions made for the workers' families or dependents at home. Furthermore, the families or dependents frequently do not receive the full value of the deductions so made. The deductions as made in Germany are in marks, but the payments to dependents are made in the currencies of the countries from which the workers came, and the amounts actually paid are often sharply reduced as a result of the control of the exchange rates of the occupied countries in favor of German currency.

The reduction of the wages of non-German workers below levels of the wages of Germans is not limited to the money wages actually received. In some areas of Germany, and especially in agricultural employments, the hours of non-German workers are longer than the hours of German farm hands; arrangements for lunch periods and for overtime, Sunday, and holiday work are less satisfactory for non-German workers; and their allowances for food, housing, heating facilities, etc., are more restricted.¹

There is evidence that the nationality of workers has been made the basis of significant differences in wage policy. Official wage scales for German workers and Polish workers in the public service in occupied Poland indicate for early 1940 extreme differences in rates of wages for the two groups for the same types of work.² Official wage schedules for agricultural workers in East Prussia provided for different rates for German and Polish workers. The head of the Labor Front stated that it was not appropriate for Poles to presume to maintain the same standard of living as the Germans.

It was stated officially that lower rates of pay for Polish workers in industrial employments would create difficulties in the way of preferences by German employers for the relatively cheap Polish labor. A

¹ See, for example, a note on conditions prevailing in agricultural employments in East Prussia, in the *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1940, pp. 313-314.

² *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1940, p. 1486.

system of wage payments was therefore adopted for removing this cause of preference for non-Germans, and yet maintaining higher wages for German workers. Employers were required to deduct from the wages of these non-German workers a so-called racial equalization fee payable to the authorities.³

METHODS OF CONTROL

The German Government before the outbreak of war had built up an administrative system for procuring and handling non-German workers. This machinery was a modification and extension of the regular national and local labor offices. These offices during the war were subject at first to the war council, which formulated general policies. Later, there was introduced a highly centralized control of all manpower, both civilian and military, and the recruiting of non-German labor as well as the other functions of the labor offices came under the new agency.

When a foreign worker reaches his place of employment, he is given a labor passport which he deposits with his employer and a food card which he deposits in the office of the canteen at the place of his employment and on which his meals are checked. When his employment ceases or when he is transferred, with the consent of his employer and the local labor office, to another job or locality, the labor passport and the meal card are given back to him for similar use in his new employment.

Additional precautions against any hostile action, sabotage, or attempts to escape take the form of grouping the non-German workers into "cells" of about 10 persons. A Nazi member is appointed as "leader" of each cell, with the duties of keeping in constant touch with each member of the cell, acquainting himself with the abilities and traits of the members, and subjecting them to Nazi propaganda, especially in respect to the role of Germany as the dominating power.

Rigorous regulations are prescribed for minimum output. Those who fail to produce the prescribed minimum are investigated as to the cause of the deficiency. If sabotage or intentional nonconformity to the prescribed standard is suspected, the worker may be turned over to the Gestapo or sent to a concentration camp. If the cause of the failure to produce the prescribed minimum is believed to be unavoidable or of such nature that it cannot easily be removed, the worker is sent back to his home country. Many reports indicate a deterioration of efficiency. The general overtaxing of labor and plant facilities, combined with shortages of materials and the use of inferior substitutes, undoubtedly accounts for a part of the decline of efficiency among German as well as non-German workers. The additional circumstances that tend to cause a decline of efficiency among non-German workers include a sense of hopelessness and a feeling that their work is helping to strengthen the German domination of their own countries.

Reports of increasing suicides, diseases, accidents, and attempted escapes indicate the state of mind of these workers. It is extremely difficult for a worker to escape, for without a labor passport he cannot obtain work en route and without a meal card no one is permitted to

³ Some of the outstanding adaptations of German labor policy to war conditions are described in various articles in the *Monthly Labor Review*, notably in the issues for October 1939, pp. 805-810, and June 1940, pp. 1374-1378. See also National Resources Planning Board, Technical Paper No. 2: *National Planning in Selected Countries*, pt. 2.

give him or sell him food. Any assistance to a fugitive worker is prohibited by the threat of severe punishment, even execution. When an employer discovers that a worker has disappeared, he is required to report the case at once to the local labor office. Unless the fugitive is at once seized in the immediate vicinity, the case is reported to the Gestapo. This agency then takes action to seize the fugitive at any railway station or harbor where he might be seeking transportation. Railway officials and policemen have been directed to arrest foreign workers found on trains without travel permits and to turn them over to the nearest labor offices, which, in turn, must deliver them to the Gestapo.

If a worker should find it possible to escape from this net and return to his own country, his chances of avoiding seizure at home are not favorable. The Nazi labor offices in the conquered and occupied countries are instructed to be on the lookout for any escaped worker in the vicinity of his home or the homes of his relatives and friends. In this manner the Gestapo throws a double net around the fugitive. If, instead of returning to his own community, he seeks refuge in a different locality, he may remain undiscovered, but the control of employment, food supplies, and housing facilities is so rigorous as to make existence difficult in a strange community.

Transfer of Workers From One Conquered Area to Another

The Nazis, with the extension of their conquests and with the prolongation of the war, found it necessary to give increasing attention to the exploitation of the conquered countries and the utilization of their labor resources for that purpose. Difficulties arose, however, in the use of the native workers in their own communities, especially after the transfer of ownership of industrial enterprises in the conquered countries to Germans. Workers frequently became unruly, with tendencies toward sabotage and concerted action for preventing the efficient operation of the enterprises in which they were employed. Transfers of workers from one conquered area to another were therefore ordered.

In some areas the Germans undertook the removal of virtually the entire population. Certain areas were desired for settlement by Germans, and for this reason many transfers were undertaken, the workers being pressed into service either in Germany or in some area subject to Nazi rule. It may be assumed that population displacement under war conditions for purposes of German colonization has been retarded by the lack of Germans to send as colonists, but the avowed Nazi policy of aggressive expansion of the German population has been carried out in certain areas even under conditions of extreme demand for labor in Germany. Hundreds of thousands of families in Poland, Czechoslovakia, Alsace, and Lorraine were forced to leave, virtually without notice, and their communities and properties were turned over to Germans. Many transfers were made for the purpose of concentrating certain racial groups, especially Jews, in designated areas.

Extensive transfers of populations have occurred, but the main shifts appear to have been the movements of workers. These transfers of workers were either for facilitating control or for meeting the varying needs for labor in the different areas. Reports indicate, for example, that about 400,000 Ukrainian workers were removed to

Norway, Holland, Belgium, and France, and that many workers from these countries were sent to the Ukraine. Transferred workers found themselves in strange countries without a knowledge of the language and ways of life.

Use of Workers in Their Own Countries

The reshuffling of populations and groups of workers resulted from the desire of the Nazis to colonize at once certain choice areas adjacent to Germany, from the special needs for labor of certain types (as agricultural laborers and skilled munitions workers), and from the fear of organized opposition to German domination. The transfers were limited by practical considerations of transportation, policing, and the most economical distribution of the labor force for the immediate purpose of carrying on the war.

The necessity for permitting most of the workers of the countries subject to German domination to remain within these countries hastened the development and intensified the character of the controls exercised by the Nazi rulers. Basic foods, raw materials, and manufactured products were subjected to rigorous control by such measures as the collecting of commodities in strategic centers, the guarding of these centers by the Nazi armed forces, and the extensive adoption of rationing both of raw materials and of goods for consumption. The major institutions of finance, exchange, and trade, and the facilities for transportation and communication were taken over and subjected to rigorous supervision. The ownership of the principal industries in the occupied countries and of many even in the nominally independent countries was transferred to Germans to such an extent as to insure control. The transfer of ownership was brought about by such methods as the levying of indemnities and the fixing of exchange rates. Forms of legal procedure were used to obscure the actual process of confiscation. Thus, the control of workers was part of a thoroughgoing control of the entire economic life of the Nazi-dominated countries.

Advantages Sought by Employment of Foreign Workers

The Nazi conception of war includes not only the totalitarian conduct of war, but also a totalitarian conquest. The conqueror takes possession of the territory of the conquered country, its military establishments, its means of communication, its raw materials, industries, finance, and trade, and, chiefly important, its population. The intent is the exploitation of its labor power, resources, and economic enterprises in any manner that may suit the purposes of the conquerors.

The advantages which the Nazis have had in mind are, in broad outline, twofold. The immediate advantage is the utilization of the labor of conquered peoples for the further prosecution of the war. The anticipated long-range advantage is the organization in the first instance of European peoples and ultimately of other peoples under German control.

The progressive expansion of the German armed forces called for additional labor not only to take the place of German workers con-

scripted for war service but also to meet the ever-increasing demands for armaments, equipment, and supplies. Non-German workers were also used increasingly for the building and repairing of military roads, railways, ports, harbors, airports, and for other construction and maintenance enterprises, either military in character or auxiliary to military operations. The workers were commonly housed in cheap barracks or similar establishments and fed at canteens maintained on substantially a military basis. The control of foreign labor had the further advantage of directing the productive energies of the conquered countries into channels for supplementing rather than competing with German industries.

The transfer of non-German workers to Germany or to some area other than their native communities has made it possible to use these workers as hostages. In this way the German rulers have a powerful weapon for preventing uprisings or serious opposition on the part of the relatives or co-nationals of these workers. Absence of workers from their home countries weakens the power of resistance of these countries and at the same time reduces their productive capacity in competition with German industries.

A long-range advantage which the Nazi authorities hope to derive from control of the populations of the conquered countries is the imposition of Nazi ideas and disciplines. Non-German workers in Germany are required to learn the German language, which, under Nazi plans, would become the major world language. Workers in their own countries are subjected to rigorous rules and disciplines and are required to obey the orders of their German "leaders." It is expected that the peoples of the conquered countries will thus become accustomed to the "new order" based upon the claim that the Germans are the *Herrenvolk*—the master race; non-German people being merely *Hilfsvölker*—auxiliaries, helpers, or servants.

Labor Resources of the Axis Countries and of the United Nations

Figures compiled by the International Labor Office⁴ for various dates in the decade preceding the beginning of the second World War indicate that in the countries occupied by German armed forces (including all of France, but excluding the occupied portions of Russia) there were about 70,000,000 persons with gainful occupations. In these countries the number of wage earners in manufacturing, mining, and related industries was about 13,000,000, and the number of wage earners in agriculture, forestry, and fishing was almost 7,000,000. The other countries under German domination (Bulgaria, Finland, Hungary, Rumania, and Italy) and countries which were forced by the war into the Nazi-controlled sphere of trade (Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland) had about 50,000,000 persons with gainful occupations. The total gainfully occupied population in all of these countries and in Germany and Japan combined was about 182,000,000. In the United States, Russia, Great Britain and the Dominions, Ireland, Egypt, Palestine, Mexico, Cuba, Brazil, and Chile (countries that may be described as having strong anti-Axis economic affiliations when not actually engaged in military opposition to the Axis powers) there was a population of almost 200,000,000 with gainful occupations. Part of Russia is, of course, under German control. Various other Latin American countries, however, could be

⁴ Year Book of Labor Statistics, 1941 (p. 5) and earlier issues.

grouped with the United Nations if figures were available; and in the absence of dependable data, neither China nor India is included.

The numerical comparison, although favorable to the anti-Axis countries, is less significant than the contrast in the motivation of the labor forces of the various countries and in the factors affecting labor productivity. Chiefly important in this connection is the compulsory and dictatorial nature of the labor controls in the countries subject to Axis powers. The Nazi régime first applied to German workers themselves, before the present war began, the policy of completely subordinating labor to its own power and purposes. Nazi decrees requiring registration and public authority for a change of jobs were supplemented as early as February 1939 by decrees authorizing the drafting of workers and providing for a firmer binding of workers to a given place of work.

German workers, through propaganda, were taught that as members of the German race, the *Herrenvolk*, they had a right to share the benefits of the Nazi conquests by becoming foremen, experts, and members of the directing staffs in charge of the economic life of the subordinate peoples. Thus, the head of the Labor Front stated that Germans would assert their natural right to rule and that within 1 to 3 years Europe would be set to work at full speed for Germany. German workers were told that they would be employed only for higher forms of work with superior wages and social status.

The Minister of Economics stated that Germany must pursue a policy of preventing the growth of certain types of industry outside of Germany and must require other peoples to produce in accord with the German program. The general nature of this program, as bearing particularly on the ambitions of the Nazis to dominate by force of arms as well as economic pressures, is indicated by the official German policy of attempting to centralize the heavy industries, mechanical engineering, and chemicals in Germany, allowing other countries to retain only subordinate and supplementary branches of production and research.

The workers of the countries under Nazi control thus have no motive for efficient production, for their work, although necessary as a condition of survival, is a part of the plans for their permanent subordination to Nazi-dominated Germany. The workers of the countries that are engaged, either economically or by military participation, in maintaining their freedom from Axis domination have the advantage of voluntary and self-imposed discipline and are free from the wastefulness of forced labor. They require no armies to police and supervise them as unwilling workers and they are free from the threat of widespread sabotage and spontaneous insurrection. Their production for waging war is potentially far greater and is rapidly increasing, whereas the war production of the Axis powers has probably reached if not passed its peak.

LONDON MEETING OF I. L. O., APRIL 1942

By CARTER GOODRICH¹

"ONE of the most encouraging things in this great struggle has been that * * * the International Labor Office has survived as an active organism and medium which is holding together important forces." This was the statement of Ernest Bevin, the British Minister of Labor, in welcoming to London the members of the I. L. O. Emergency Committee. These forces, he added, might prove "destined to play a tremendous part, not only in asserting the imperative necessity of a victory by the forces of liberty, but in rebuilding the world of the future. * * * This is a people's war * * * if it is a people's war it must be a people's peace."

The gathering which Mr. Bevin addressed was a small one but significant as the first public meeting² held by the International Labor Organization on the other side of the Atlantic since its working center was moved to Montreal after the fall of France. The Emergency Committee was created at the New York meeting of the Governing Body, in November 1941, to act for the full Governing Body between regular sessions. It met at London from April 20 to April 24, 1942. Its members were of the representatives of six governments, three employers, and three workers. Of these persons, three were from the United States—Carter Goodrich, the United States Government representative, who is chairman of the Committee; Robert J. Watt, workers' member of the Governing Body; and Clarence G. McDavitt, substitute member of the Governing Body, representing employers. The five other participating governments and their representatives were as follows: Great Britain, Sir Frederick Leggett, Chief Industrial Commissioner; Canada, Hon. Vincent Massey, Canadian High Commissioner in London; India, Mr. S. Lall, Indian Deputy High Commissioner in London; Netherlands, Dr. van den Tempel, Minister of Social Affairs; and Mexico, Mr. U. Luders de Negre, Consul General in London.

In addition to Robert Watt, the workers' group consisted of Joseph Hallsworth, Great Britain, and Jef Rens, Belgium, with Walther Schevenels, secretary of the International Federation of Trade Unions, as a substitute, and Olav Hindahl, a member of the Norwegian Government, as an observer. In addition to Clarence McDavitt, the employers' group consisted of Sir John Forbes Watson, Great Britain, and Mr. Erulkar, India.

The Governments of Norway, China, Poland, and Yugoslavia, which are substitute members of the Committee, were represented by Mr. Størstad, Norwegian Minister of Social Affairs; W. King, Chinese

¹ Mr. Goodrich is United States Labor Commissioner at Geneva, and chairman of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office.

² But not the last. Before the delegates from the United States had left London, two members of the I. L. O. staff (Mr. Oswald Stein, Chief of the Social Insurance Section, and Mr. Stack, his chief technical assistant), had arrived in London to give expert testimony, at the request of the British Government, before the committee created under the chairmanship of Sir William Beveridge, to plan a comprehensive revision of the British systems of social security. Preparations are also actively under way for a meeting of the I. L. O. Joint Maritime Commission in London on June 22, 1942.

Activity on still another continent was indicated in one of the decisions of the Emergency Committee. Paul Van Zeeland, of Belgium, was appointed to represent the government group of the Governing Body as a member of a tripartite delegation to the meeting of the Inter-American Committee to Forward Social Security which is to be held in Santiago, Chile, in September 1942. Henry I. Harriman, United States employers' member, and Mr. Watt had already been selected as the representatives of the employers' and workers' groups.

Minister to the Netherlands; Jan Stanczyk, Polish Minister of Labor; and Mr. Budisavlkevic, Yugoslav Minister of Social Welfare and Public Health. Belgium, as a member of the Governing Body, was represented alternately by Mr. Spaak, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Paul Van Zeeland, former Prime Minister. In addition, there were present, as observers from other States which are members of the Organization, representatives of the Governments of Czechoslovakia, Greece, and Luxemburg.

I. L. O. and Post-War Reconstruction

The purpose of the meeting was to take the first steps to carry out the decisions of the New York-Washington Conference of 1941. The Committee's principal concern was with ways and means of equipping the International Labor Organization to play the part in post-war reconstruction called for at that Conference by the adoption of the so-called "American Resolution."³ In the general discussion of this question, the representatives of India and China made vigorous pleas, well received in the Committee and warmly seconded in the London press, that particular attention be given to plans for the 800,000,000 inhabitants of their countries. A note prepared by the Office suggested that the question of post-war migration should be considered in relation to the planning of international investment for the rehabilitation of broken areas and the development of underdeveloped regions. Discussion added the point of the I. L. O.'s interest in the setting of minimum, though flexible, labor standards as a condition of such developmental loans. The representative of the Netherlands Government suggested as part of the I. L. O.'s reconstruction machinery the creation of international committees on the problems of a number of specific industries, and other members of the Committee stressed the special importance of international consultation and agreement in transport and textiles. Mr. Watt made a strong plea that the international agencies of the I. L. O. should be supplemented by committees on post-war planning formed in each country and including the principal leaders both of the trade-unions and of the employers' associations.

The New York Resolution, in authorizing the development of I. L. O. research in the field of reconstruction, included the instruction "to cooperate with governmental, inter-governmental, and private agencies engaged in similar studies." It was therefore appropriate that Alexander Loveday, Director of the Economic, Financial, and Transit Section of the League of Nations, now stationed at Princeton, N. J., should address the meeting and discuss cooperation between the two agencies. The same resolution had placed "the feeding of peoples in need" at the head of the list of points on which immediate action must be ready at the close of the war. The "inter-governmental" agency now charged with the most immediate responsibility in this field is the Inter-Allied Relief Commission, created by agreement between the British and the exiled governments in September 1941. The Chairman of this Commission, Sir Frederick Leith-Ross, appeared before the Emergency Committee in private session and gave a frank

³ Monthly Labor Review, December 1941 (p. 1448) and February 1942 (p. 305).

account of the purposes and problems of his organization. After hearing his statement, the Emergency Committee laid the basis for cooperative action by instructing the Office to keep in touch with the Commission, through an observer or otherwise, and by appointing a tripartite delegation from its own membership for such liaison with the Commission as might be found desirable. The members chosen were Doctor van den Tempel, Mr. Hallsworth, and Sir John Forbes Watson (with Mr. Erulkar as substitute).

Among its administrative decisions, the Committee ratified the supplementary 1942 budget for reconstruction purposes which had been implied in the November decisions⁴ and adopted by telegraphic vote of the members of the Governing Body in the early months of 1942.

The most important decision of the Committee was to authorize the establishment of an advisory committee on the economic conditions of the post-war settlement. It had been the strongly expressed conviction of the 1941 Conference that "in international, as in national affairs, economic policy" must, as President Roosevelt told the delegates, be thought of as "a means for achieving social objectives." In this spirit the Acting Director, E. J. Phelan, put the proposal before the Emergency Committee in the following terms:

It is felt that the best solution would be to set up a committee composed of men of wide experience in the light of whose advice [the Governing Body] could feel that its own decisions were formulated with security and authority.

The function of such a committee would be to study what economic provisions should be included in the post-war settlement in order to make possible the implementation of the social objectives of the Atlantic Charter and in particular the provision of full employment and a rising standard of living. If such a committee could be composed of outstanding personalities with the competence and experience necessary to deal with financial and economic problems from an international standpoint, not only would its views undoubtedly carry great weight but it would be invaluable in helping to direct the work of the Office on these vitally important subjects.

This proposal was adopted without opposition but only after a prolonged discussion had thrown into clear relief the necessity of using this and every other available means of putting the International Labor Organization, as an instrument of labor and industry as well as governments, in the best possible position to give its informed opinion on the measures essential to the attainment of full employment and a rising standard of living. The three United States members of the Committee supported the proposal vigorously and with a realization of its bearing on the commitment undertaken by their Government and that of Great Britain "to the expansion, by appropriate international and domestic measures, of production, employment, and the exchange and consumption of goods."⁵

The detailed formulation of an international policy of full employment calls for the participation of the organizations of the workers and employers of the free peoples of the world. It cannot succeed without winning their eager and understanding support. In its London deliberations, undramatic as they were, the Emergency Committee showed its full sense of the I. L. O.'s responsibility for the mobilization of these forces for the realization of the social objectives of the Atlantic Charter.

⁴ See *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1942 (p. 312).

⁵ Lend-Lease Agreement of February 23, 1942.

LABOR REGULATIONS OF THE MILITARY GOVERNMENT OF HAWAII

FOLLOWING the attack of Japan upon Hawaii, on December 7, 1941, the Governor of the Territory acting under the authority of the Organic Act of 1900, immediately issued a proclamation declaring martial law, suspending the writ of habeas corpus, and delegating to the American commanding general, all powers formerly exercised by the civil governor, and also "the powers normally exercised by judicial officers and employees of this Territory and of the counties and cities therein and such other and further powers as the emergency may require." The proclamation further asked citizens to "obey promptly and fully, in letter and in spirit, such proclamations, rules, regulations, and orders as the Commanding General, Hawaiian Department, or his subordinates, may issue during the present emergency." This action was approved by the President.

Director of Labor Control

In January 1942 the Military Governor issued an order establishing the Office of Director of Labor Control. The Director is authorized to make plans for the procurement, augmentation, and distribution of labor available within the Territory, and to investigate and mediate such labor disputes as are referred to him by the Military Governor. In addition, the Director is required to recommend to the Military Governor such rules and regulations as are necessary and proper, and when so directed by the Military Governor to administer such regulations.

Registration of Able-Bodied Men

All unemployed able-bodied men were required to register with the United States Employment Service beginning February 2 and prior to February 12, 1942. Persons becoming unemployed after these dates are required to register within 72 hours. All employers must notify the Employment Service within 48 hours of any employee who is added to or dropped from the pay roll. Violations of this regulation are punishable by a fine of not more than \$1,000 or imprisonment for not more than 1 year, or both.

Sunday Labor

By an order of the Military Governor, the provisions of the law for, bidding labor on Sunday were suspended, and all places of business-professional offices, etc., are permitted to operate on Sunday from 9 a. m. to 5 p. m. However, this regulation does not apply to places of business which are permitted to operate longer hours by the laws or regulations of the Territory of Hawaii or of the Military Governor. It also does not apply to a business forbidden to operate by order of the Military Governor.

Wages and Hours

Another order of the Military Governor, which became effective April 1, 1942, froze wages on all war projects as of December 1, 1941,

established a standard 48-hour week for such projects, and required workers therein to remain at their present jobs. It is specifically provided, however, that nothing in the order shall be construed as superseding or being in conflict with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 or the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act. The order has been interpreted also as not interfering with or changing the provisions of any collective-bargaining agreement previously made.

Limitations on wages.—The revised wage schedule adopted for navy contractors on December 1, 1941, was designated by the order as the standard wage scale for workers engaged in work for Army and Navy agencies, as well as for their contractors and subcontractors. No person seeking employment with such employers may be employed at a rate less than or in excess of the standard rate for the job listed in the schedule, unless revised by direction of the Military Governor. These provisions do not apply to Federal or Territorial employees nor to civil-service employees of the city and county of Honolulu.

Hours of work and overtime.—The order sets the standard workweek at six 8-hour days, but overtime, to be paid at the rate of time and a half, begins at 44 hours. Any time worked in excess of 8 hours in any 1 day is also counted as overtime. The maximum hours worked in any week may not exceed 56, except in cases of emergencies, and workers must be allowed 1 day off in 7. This day can be any day, so that work on Sunday will not be automatically counted as overtime.

The provisions relative to hours of work and overtime do not apply to workers employed in a supervisory capacity on a monthly salary basis. They also do not apply to Federal and Territorial employees nor to civil service employees of the city and county of Honolulu.

Restrictions on Employment

Workers are prevented by the order from leaving war jobs without obtaining from their employers written releases "without prejudice." Similarly, employers are prohibited from hiring workers from other war agencies unless the employees present such releases. A worker who seeks other employment without a release from his present employer or who misrepresents his status in any way is subject to a fine of \$200 or 2 months' imprisonment, or both. An employee who fails to report within a reasonable time to the job to which he is ordered by his employer is subject to a similar penalty.

Persons discharged from war jobs "with prejudice" (which amounts to blacklisting in such employment) may appeal their cases to the Appeal Agency, Office of the Director of Labor Control, for decision as to whether or not they may be allowed to continue work with another employer. Any worker not satisfied with the decision of the Appeal Agency may further appeal his case to the Advisory Council to the Director of Labor Control.

Suspension of Labor Contracts

The provisions of any contract with individual employees or labor unions which are in conflict with the provision of the order are suspended. The order also provides for the suspension of labor contracts between individuals and agencies of the Army and Navy, and their contractors and subcontractors, which restrict or specify the nature of the work to be performed.

WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION

IN ORDER to provide for the effective distribution of manpower, the President on April 18, 1942, established a War Manpower Commission of nine members, with Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator, as its Chairman. This Commission was given broad powers and authority to decide upon the human needs of industry, agriculture, and even, within prescribed limitations, of the military forces.

In addition to the Chairman, the Commission consists of representatives of the Departments of War, Navy, Agriculture, and Labor, the War Production Board, the Labor Production Division of the WPB, the Selective Service System, and the Civil Service Commission. These representatives are as follows: Goldthwaite H. Dorr, War Department; Under Secretary James V. Forrestal, Navy; Secretary Claude R. Wickard, Agriculture Department; Secretary Frances Perkins, Labor Department; Chairman Donald Nelson, War Production Board; Wendell Lund, Labor Production Division, WPB; Director Lewis B. Hershey, Selective Service System; and Arthur S. Flemming, Civil Service Commission.

The function of this new commission is to formulate plans and propose legislation for the most effective use of the labor force of the country. The Chairman, after consultation with members of the Commission, is authorized to provide adequate supplies of industrial and farm labor to assure success of war production. In addition, he is empowered to issue directions to and make regulations and standards for the Selective Service System "with respect to the use and classification of manpower needed for critical industrial, agricultural, and governmental" requirements. Thus, the Chairman will have power to see to it that adequate supplies of workers in industry and agriculture are provided from selective-service registration records.

The Executive order designates certain agencies which must "conform to such policies, directives, regulations, and standards as the Chairman may prescribe in the execution of the powers vested in him," and states that such agencies "shall be subject to such other coordination by the Chairman as may be necessary to enable the Chairman to discharge the responsibilities placed upon him." These agencies are as follows:

- (a) The Selective Service System with respect to the use and classification of manpower needed for critical industrial, agricultural, and governmental employment.
- (b) The Federal Security Agency with respect to employment service and defense training functions.
- (c) The Work Projects Administration with respect to placement and training functions.
- (d) The United States Civil Service Commission with respect to functions relating to the filling of positions in Government service.
- (e) The Railroad Retirement Board with respect to employment service activities.
- (f) The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor.
- (g) The Labor Production Division of the War Production Board.
- (h) The Civilian Conservation Corps.
- (j) The Department of Agriculture with respect to farm-labor statistics, farm-labor-camp programs, and other labor-market activities.
- (j) The Office of Defense Transportation with respect to labor supply and requirement activities.

Similarly, all other Federal departments and agencies which perform functions relating to the recruitment or utilization of manpower are required, in performing such functions, to conform to the policies, directives, regulations, and standards prescribed by the Chairman. In addition, the labor-supply functions of the War Production Board and the Civil Service Commission's National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel were directly transferred to the Manpower Commission. The Executive order further provides for the transfer of the Apprenticeship Section of the Division of Labor Standards of the Labor Department and the training functions of the Labor Division of the War Production Board to the Federal Security Agency.

Powers and Duties of Commission

The Executive order establishing the Manpower Commission authorized the Chairman, after consultation with members of the Commission, to formulate plans and establish "basic national policies" with regard to the mobilization of American manpower in the prosecution of the war. In addition, the Commission was directed to—

(1) Estimate the requirements of manpower for industry; review all other estimates of needs for military, agricultural, and civilian manpower; and direct the various Government agencies as to the proper allocation of available manpower.

(2) Coordinate the collection and compilation by Federal departments and agencies of data concerning the labor market.

(3) Establish policies and prescribe regulations governing all Federal programs relating to the recruitment, vocational training, and placement of workers in industry and agriculture.

(4) Prescribe basic policies governing the filling of the Federal Government's requirements for manpower, excluding those of the military and naval forces, and to issue such operating directives as may be necessary.

The Executive order also directs the Commission to formulate legislative programs designed to facilitate effective mobilization and use of national manpower, and, with the approval of the President, to recommend this legislation to Congress.

Availability of Manpower

In a statement issued by Federal Security Administrator McNutt upon his appointment as Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, he pointed out that the Commission should provide the machinery for making certain that the manpower needed for war production will be available when and where it is needed. Through this organization, all the agencies of the Federal Government, working closely with representatives of labor and industry, will be able to develop and maintain coordinated labor-supply policies and programs on a voluntary and democratic basis.

The function of the Commission, the Chairman said, will be (1) to decide where the available labor supply is most urgently needed, (2) to allocate manpower properly between the armed forces and industry, (3) to make full use of unemployed workers, and (4) to mobilize the full manpower and womanpower of the country to meet the prospective needs of the war program. It will be necessary to utilize women in industries where they are best fitted to serve, and to utilize on a full-time basis in war industry workers who are now partially employed.

In addition, the program of industrial training must be expanded, and use must be made of all available labor supplies, such as the millions of Negroes and loyal foreign-born workers not now in war production.

Factors Intensifying Shortage of Manpower

In his statement, the Chairman of the Commission declared that there is already a serious deficiency in the number of skilled workers available for industry. This is intensified by the action of many war production plants in "pirating" workers from other employers in the same or related industries. This "pirating" forces the employer who may be temporarily unable to use all his skilled workers to retain them at all costs, lest some other employer hire them away permanently. The result is labor hoarding—skilled workers being held for future work while nearby plants attempt to secure such workers through advertising and labor scouting.

Many employers have continued to assign skilled workers to jobs which workers of less skill could perform. They have sought to recruit highly skilled machinists when semiskilled machine operators were qualified for the job. Substantial numbers of skilled and semiskilled workers of the kind most needed at present are now engaged in non-war activities.

All of these factors, the statement said, artificially intensify skilled labor shortages which now exist. It was also pointed out that the task of manpower mobilization involves not only this problem but also that of planning the labor-supply budget to make sure that the Nation will be prepared to meet any general labor shortage which may occur. In conclusion, the Chairman declared that "positive action taken in time will prevent the necessity for more drastic measures later on."



USE OF THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED IN WAR INDUSTRY

EMPLOYMENT of handicapped persons to replace men inducted into the armed services is receiving the attention of official agencies such as the physically handicapped placement service in the United States Employment Service, the vocational rehabilitation service in the United States Office of Education, and the State boards operating under these services. A great many of the persons with physical impairments are employable in industry if the proper training is given or necessary adjustments are made. The United States Employment Service is making every effort, through its placement service for the handicapped, to recruit and place such persons in industry.

An experimental rehabilitation clinic, organized in Connecticut by the rehabilitation service of the State Department of Education in an attempt to salvage physically handicapped persons for war production, is said to be the first of its kind in the United States. The first clinic, held in a New Haven hospital in March 1942, had for its purpose the selection of men from groups of physically handicapped individuals who could be fitted for work in the war industries by preemployment training, within-industry training, medical care, or the provision of artificial appliances. A recent survey in the State indicated that

more than 3,600 such persons could be used to fill the prospective needs of 205 firms. Owing to the work of the clinics now being conducted in the State, there has been a definite increase in interest among manufacturers in the employment of handicapped persons.

At the first session of the New Haven clinic, described in the Monthly Bulletin of the Connecticut Department of Unemployment Compensation for April 1942, 20 handicapped individuals between the ages of 17 and 58, having cardiac, orthopedic, tuberculosis, and vision handicaps, were selected from the employment-service files for tests. They were first given intelligence, clerical, and mechanical-aptitude tests by a staff of psychologists, and afterward were given medical examinations by specialists in the different types of disabilities represented. At the conclusion of the examination the findings were considered by the entire group concerned with the clinic, together with eight employers representing industries of the county, who questioned each handicapped person regarding his work experience, education, and other factors, for the purpose of evaluating his occupational fitness and employment possibilities. Of the 20 persons examined, 5 were reported to be of high mentality and were recommended for defense training courses, 9 others were considered fit for certain types of employment, and in 6 cases further psychological study and medical care or the provision of artificial members were recommended. Of the 9 persons considered adequately prepared for defense employment, 5 were referred to such jobs on the following morning and the remaining 4 were placed on the register of applicants for job openings as they occurred. In closing the first clinic, the Director of the Division of Vocational Training of the United States Office of Education stated that 30 percent of the unemployed whose applications were on file in the United States Employment Service throughout the country were physically handicapped. Everything possible, it was said, will be done to remove such obstacles to employment.



EMPLOYMENT OF GIRLS ON GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS

A REQUEST made by the Secretary of War to permit the employment of girls under 18 years of age in certain industries by exempting them from the provisions of section 1 of the Public Contracts Act was granted by the Secretary of Labor on April 21, 1942. Girls 16 and 17 years of age may be engaged in filling orders under Government contracts in the following industries: Food processing, leather products (including luggage and saddlery), boots and shoes, rubber products, photographic equipment and supplies, chemical, drug and allied products, surgical and scientific instruments, optical instruments, arms and ammunition, electrical manufacturing, plastic products, safety appliances, machinery and allied products, converted paper products, and the fabrication of metal products (including nonferrous-metal products). Further study is being given to the possibility of extending the exemption to cover textile products and wearing apparel and allied products.

Utilization of the services of girls under 18 on Government contracts is subject to the following conditions: No girl under 16 may be

employed for more than 8 hours in any one day, or between the hours of 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., or in any way contrary to State laws governing hours of work; no girl under 18 is to be employed in any operation or occupation which, under the Fair Labor Standards Act or under any State law or administrative ruling, is determined to be hazardous in nature or dangerous to health; contractors must keep on file certificates of age showing that each girl employed is at least 16; a specific and definite luncheon period of at least 30 minutes must be granted regularly to girls under 18; and girls under 18 must receive not less than the minimum hourly rates of pay prescribed by the Fair Labor Standards Act or the Walsh-Healey Act.



PROVISION FOR RESTORATION OF PRE-WAR TRADE PRACTICES IN GREAT BRITAIN¹

PROVISION for restoration of trade practices departed from during the war has been made in a law adopted in Great Britain in 1942. The purpose of the Restoration of Pre-war Trade Practices Act, as stated by the Minister of Labor, is to restore the trade practices at the end of the emergency in accordance with the Government's pledge. A precedent for this action was established in 1919 but circumstances then and at present differ significantly. In 1915 there was less joint industrial machinery. The Government conducted negotiations with many different bodies to secure agreements for the relaxation of trade practices, and prolonged effort was required before it was possible to draw up the Treasury Agreement pledging the Government to restore them. At the start of the present war, both employers and employees had national bodies with wide powers to speak for their members. The law reviewed below was drafted with the aid and in consultation with these organizations, namely the British Employers' Confederation and the Trades Union Congress.

Temporary reestablishment of pre-war practices will be a disadvantage to the workers who benefited by wartime changes in practices and to many who entered industry for the first time. However, these benefits were made possible only by the sacrifices of others who took years to build up the standards, and the legislation is intended to protect the latter. A Labor member of the House of Commons described the legislation, when proposed, as an "installment of good will." He added that very few people have any idea of the importance attached to the rights and customs which workers have surrendered during this war to bring about its successful conclusion, and that while all conditions cannot be expected to be restored by the law it is anticipated that workers will not suffer as they did following the last war.

Date and Period of Restoration

The trade practices to be restored include those in effect immediately before the outbreak of war in 1939. Within 2 months from a date to be appointed by order the employer must restore them or permit their restoration and maintain them for 18 months. If stand-

¹ Data are from Great Britain, House of Commons, Restoration of Pre-war Trade Practices Bill (No. 9), ordered to be printed December 17, 1941, and Parliamentary Debates, February 3, 10, and 12, 1942.

ards are restored before the appointed date they must be maintained for 18 months from that date. Employers in businesses started during the war are under obligation to observe the pre-war practices of the most nearly analogous businesses.

By the definition adopted in the statute the war period began on September 3, 1939, and will end on such date as the Minister of Labor and National Service may by order appoint, but not later than the date on which the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act of 1939 expires.

The provision requiring maintenance of restored trade practices for 18 months after reinstatement is important in the opinion of the Minister of Labor, owing to the time that will be required to retool and recondition industries for peacetime production. This, the Minister estimates, will take from 4 to 12 months to accomplish in many large plants.

An amendment to the bill that was accepted when it was considered in committee provides that trade practices which were departed from in the period April 30–September 3, 1939, with a view to accelerating the production of munitions of war, shall be regarded as having obtained immediately before the war and having been departed from during the war period. Therefore, they shall be liable to post-war restoration. "Munitions of war" in this connection means "the whole or any part of any ship, submarine, aircraft, tank or similar engine, arms and ammunition, torpedo, or mine intended or adapted for use in war, and any other article, material, or device intended for such use."

An employer or employer organization may enter into agreements with trade-unions that were accustomed before the war to maintain a trade practice in the particular enterprise or branch or any others carried on in analogous circumstances, to modify or waive the obligation to restore trade practices (or for the reference of the question of modification or waiver to arbitration). An employer who enters into such an agreement is deemed to have discharged his obligation as long as he complies with the terms of the agreement (or arbitration award).

Settlement of Disputed Points

Questions arising as to whether an employer has fulfilled obligations under the law may be referred to the Minister of Labor and National Service by any employers' organization or trade-union which in the opinion of the Minister habitually takes part in settling questions of wages and working conditions in that particular trade or industry. If suitable industrial machinery exists for settling the question, the Minister must refer the question to it for settlement. Otherwise he must take such other steps as appear to him expedient for settling it. If a settlement is not reached and is unlikely to be reached within a reasonable time, the Minister must refer the question for compulsory arbitration.

Matters referred to arbitration may be decided by one or more persons, referred to as an arbitration tribunal, and appointed by the Minister. In answer to a question in the House of Commons, the Minister stated that the tribunals will be constituted as are others under his Ministry, that is with a chairman (usually a lawyer) assisted by panels of assessors in addition to technical experts. All decisions will be final and binding on the parties concerned. On failure to

comply with an award the person will be liable to be taken before a court of summary jurisdiction.

As submitted, the bill provided for a fine not exceeding £25 upon summary conviction of an offense. Certain members of the House of Commons sought to have the limit raised to £100, as a greater deterrent to infringement of the law. A compromise penalty of not more than £50 for an offense or continued failure to comply with trade practices was finally agreed upon and written into the legislation.

On recommendation of the Minister of Labor and National Service the act may be applied to enterprises of the Crown by order in council, with such modifications and exceptions as may be specified. Gas, water, electricity, and transport, and such other enterprises carried on by local authorities as the Minister may direct are also covered.

Any order in council made under the provisions of the act may be varied or revoked by subsequent order in council or order made in like manner. Before the Minister recommends such action a draft of the recommendation must have lain before each House of Parliament for 40 days, and further proceedings must be halted if either House so decides. Periods during which Parliament is dissolved or prorogued (in excess of 4 days) are not to be included in calculating the 40-day period.

Application of the law in Scotland and Northern Ireland is subject to certain specified limitations.



LENGTHENED HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN AND YOUTH IN GREAT BRITAIN

AS A WARTIME measure, hours of women and young persons in Great Britain may be extended beyond the limits fixed in the Factories Act of 1937, if the employer obtains the permission of the District Inspector of Factories. The Hours of Day Work in Factories (Women and Young Persons) Order of January 23, 1942, authorizes the inspectors to permit the extension of hours within specified limits. This authority was derived from regulation 59 of the General Defense Regulations of 1939, as amended October 10, 1941.

This is the second time in the present war that the urgent need for production has led the British Government to exempt, with certain limitations, women and young persons subject to the hours prescribed by the Factories Act of 1937. As shown, authority for extending the hours exists both in the factory law itself and in the emergency regulations. When hostilities commenced, the service departments were authorized to inform their contractors that they might allow their employees to work overtime, subject to a maximum workweek of 60 hours. They were required to apply at once to the Home Secretary for formal approval. This procedure was not permitted for long, and employers returned to the prescribed procedure of obtaining exemptions by application to a factory inspector and the Home Office.

Under the 1937 factory legislation which became effective on July 1, 1938, the working hours of women and of boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years were limited to 9 per day and 48 per week. Children between 14 and 16 years of age were to have a maximum workweek of 44 hours as of July 1, 1939, unless the employer could establish the fact that shorter hours would seriously prejudice carrying

on of the industry, and unless the work was particularly suitable to the young persons and had definite value in training for adult employment. Overtime was prohibited for young persons under 16 years of age, but for women and other young persons the law permitted 100 hours in a calendar year, 6 hours a week, in 25 weeks a year. In seasonal industries and those under special pressure, the Secretary of State was authorized to raise the annual limit to 150 hours of overtime work. Standards adopted in 1937 were considerably higher than those formerly in effect, namely 55½ hours weekly in textile factories and 60 hours in nontextile factories.

A schedule attached to the 1942 order establishes maximum hours of women and young persons aged 16 or over at 55 per week, as may be specified in writing by the district inspector.¹ Meal and rest periods are excluded. Not more than 10½ hours may be worked on any weekday other than Saturday. On Saturday hours are limited to 5 or such greater number not to exceed 8 as may be specially sanctioned by the district inspector. The actual workday may not be spread over more than a 12-hour period, beginning not earlier than 7 a. m., and ending not later than 9 p. m. (or on Saturday, 1 p. m.). Exemptions may be sanctioned by the district inspector, permitting Saturday work to end not later than 5 p. m.

Young persons under 16 years of age may work not more than 48 hours in any week, exclusive of meal and rest periods, if authorized by the district inspector. The daily limit is 9 hours on any weekday and 5 hours on Saturday, provided that in factories employing young persons 5 days a week, the total hours on any weekday other than Saturday may be not more than 10. The spread of the workday is confined to an 11-hour period. Opening time may not be earlier than 7 a. m. (unless otherwise specified by order or regulation), and the closing time is fixed at 6 p. m. on weekdays and 1 p. m. on Saturday. In a factory employing young persons not more than 5 days a week, the daily limit on spread of working time is 11½ hours.

Spells of work may not exceed 4½ hours without an interval of at least a half hour for a meal or rest. However, where a 10-minute rest is permitted, the spell may be lengthened to 5 hours. On any day when the working time exceeds 10 hours, fixed intervals amounting to at least 1¼ hours must be granted between the beginning and termination of work.

No woman or young person may be employed on Sunday or outside regular hours on any other day, either about the business of the factory or any other business carried on by the occupier. Employers are required to post notices in the plants specifying work and rest periods, and no woman or young person shall be employed other than in accordance with the notices.

¹ For terms of the order see British Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1942.

Price and Food Control

RATIONING OF SUGAR AND GASOLINE

STRICT rationing for consumers in the United States began in May 1942, when sugar rationing became effective. Shortly after this program went into effect, the Office of Price Administration established a temporary plan for rationing gasoline along the Eastern seaboard.

Sugar Rationing

The initial sugar ration limits each man, woman, and child to one-half pound a week for the first 8 weeks. That limit may be raised later, depending on supply, but it probably will not rise above 1 pound a week. In addition, an allotment of 5 pounds per person per year is allowed for use in canning at home, except that in 13 States and the District of Columbia, the canning allotment is limited, for the period of May and June, to 1 pound per person.

CONSUMER REGISTRATION

Consumers were required to register in elementary schools throughout the country on May 4, 5, 6, or 7, and were given the privilege of purchasing 1 pound of sugar with each one of the first four stamps in the war-ration book furnished at that time. Stamp No. 1 was valid during the period May 5 to May 16, stamp No. 2 from May 17 to May 30, stamp No. 3 from May 31 to June 13, and stamp No. 4 for the period June 14 to June 27.

Under the regulations issued by the Office of Price Administration, one member of each family unit was required to register and apply for War Ration Book One for all the members of the family. Consumers who are not members of a family unit were required to register for themselves.

Rationing stamps may be transferred only upon an order to receive sugar, and all other transfers are prohibited. Consumers who use less sugar than they are allowed to purchase are forbidden to give their stamps to friends. Furthermore, each stamp is valid only during the ration period assigned to it.

RULES FOR INDUCTEES

Persons inducted into the armed forces of the United States or those leaving the United States for a period of more than 30 days must surrender their ration books to their local boards. Rationing books must also be returned to the board within 10 days after the death of a person for whom the book was issued.

Army or Navy personnel "subsisted in kind" or fed "in organized messes" were not eligible to register for a ration book, but other

members of the military establishment who eat at home were required to register. Army and Navy personnel "in furlough status for a period in excess of 1 week" are entitled to their ration of sugar for the furlough period, and will receive a sugar-purchase certificate upon presentation of leave papers to any local rationing board.

HOME CANNING

Every person holding a War Ration Book is entitled to a special allotment of not more than 5 pounds of sugar a year for the home canning or preserving of fresh fruits and vegetables for home consumption. However, consumers registered with boards situated in what are known as "scarcity areas" were permitted to obtain only 1 pound of sugar for home canning during the period of May and June. This provision applied to the District of Columbia and to the States of Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia, and West Virginia.

RESTAURANTS AND MANUFACTURERS

Restaurants and other food services are permitted to obtain 50 percent of the amount of sugar used during the corresponding month of 1941, or the amount used during March 1942. Bakers and manufacturers of confectionery, ice cream, dairy products, preserves, bottled beverages, desserts, and other specialties, are entitled to an allotment of 70 percent of past use. Such establishments were required to register on April 28 and 29.

Patrons of restaurants and other eating establishments are not required to present their ration books in order to obtain sugar. Thus, an individual who uses up his sugar at home may get additional sugar by eating in restaurants.

WHOLESALE AND RETAILERS

Wholesale and retail dealers in sugar were also required to register on April 28 and 29. This registration was necessary in order to make possible the adjustment of sugar stocks so that each establishment would have an equal opportunity to serve its customers. Under the rationing plan both retailers and wholesalers can replenish their stocks on the basis of rationing stamps and certificates received from their customers.

VIOLATION OF REGULATIONS

Under the terms of the order, violation of the regulations is punishable by a maximum fine of \$10,000, or imprisonment for not more than 1 year, or both. In addition, a violator of the order in connection with the operation of an establishment using sugar may be required to surrender for cancelation all stamps or sugar-purchase certificates held by him "in conjunction with the operation of all such establishments."

Gasoline Rationing

Under the temporary plan for gas rationing established by the Office of Price Administration, the rationing of gasoline became effective in

17 Eastern States,¹ the District of Columbia, and the city of Bristol, Tenn., on May 15. This plan, designed to meet the immediate emergency in the Eastern States affected by the recent gasoline-limitation order of the Office of Petroleum Administration, is an interim plan which will probably operate only until July 1, when it may be extended or a more elaborate and comprehensive coupon rationing system put into effect.

RATION CARDS

Motorists were required to register on May 12, 13, and 14, in order to obtain ration cards. Drivers of all noncommercial passenger cars were required to have cards in order to purchase gasoline. Operators of all trucks and other motor vehicles readily recognized as commercial vehicles did not have to register. However, all other operators, including commercial users whose vehicles are not clearly marked as commercial, were required to obtain ration cards.

Five types of cards were issued at the time of registration. The basic "A" card was issued to any automobile owner upon the presentation of his car registration card. The "A" card contains seven squares, each representing a unit of gasoline, entitling a "nonessential" driver to buy a total of 21 gallons of gasoline between May 15 and July 1, or about 3 gallons a week.

GREATER ALLOWANCES FOR ESSENTIAL DRIVING

Persons who in the pursuit of a gainful occupation require mileage greater than that provided by the "A" allowance could apply for class "B" cards. Cards "B1," "B2," and "B3" were issued to passenger-car owners who stated in their applications that their gasoline needs fell within certain specified requirements.

At the time of registration, each unit of gasoline was set at 3 gallons by an order of the War Production Board. Under this order the "B1" card, which contains 11 units and entitles the holder to 33 gallons of gasoline, was given to those whose daily essential mileage is more than 6 but less than 10 miles. Those who drive more than 10 but less than 14 miles were given a "B2" card which has 15 units and permits the holder to buy 45 gallons. Drivers whose essential mileage is more than 14 miles received a "B3" card containing 19 units, with which 57 gallons can be purchased.

In addition to the "A" and "B" cards, "X" cards were issued to owners of cars in specified classes whose gasoline needs cannot be estimated in a definite number of miles. A doctor, for example, could qualify for an "X" card.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS

Any registrant who feels he is suffering especial hardship because of the particular rationing card issued to him may appeal to the local rationing board. If the board finds in his favor a new ration card will be issued and the old one canceled. A supplemental ration may be granted to a card holder if he can show that the ration provided is insufficient to permit the use of his car to the extent essential to life or to the pursuit of his gainful occupation and that no reasonable alternative means of transportation is available.

¹ These States are Connecticut, Delaware, Florida east of the Apalachicola River, Georgia, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, and West Virginia.

Owners of motorcycles received a smaller number of gallons for each unit on their ration cards. Small motor cars, however, are entitled to the same gallonage as larger cars. The owner of two or more cars was furnished an "A" ration card for each car in his possession. Inboard-motor boats not used commercially are also entitled to "A" cards. A normal supply of gasoline is allowed for other nonhighway uses, including outboard-motor boats, farm tractors, gasoline engines, stoves and furnaces, and cleaning establishments.

EXEMPTIONS

The rationing regulations apply to 17 Eastern States, the District of Columbia, and the city of Bristol, Tenn. However, the rationing order did not apply to 93 counties in Maryland, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia. All restrictions were lifted for these counties because local production, plus supplies from nearby production regions to the West, were found sufficient for the time being.



WARTIME PRICE REGULATIONS, APRIL 1942

FOLLOWING the President's speech on April 28, 1942, in which he announced a seven-point program for the purpose of halting the rapidly mounting cost of living, the Office of Price Administration on April 28, 1942, issued an order placing an absolute price ceiling over the great majority of the services and commodities sold at retail. The ceiling also extends over the prices charged by wholesalers, manufacturers, and producers. At the same time, regulations were issued regarding rents in designated defense rental areas. These regulations are strictly wartime measures, which are to apply for the "duration" and to be abandoned as soon as possible after peace comes.

Under the price order known as the "General Maximum Price Regulation," maximum prices charged by manufacturers, wholesalers, and retailers, as well as those charged for services in connection with the commodities, cannot exceed the highest prices charged in March 1942. For manufacturers and wholesalers, the order became effective May 11, while for retailers of commodities it became effective May 18. For services sold at retail, the order takes effect on July 1.

The order applies to prices of every commodity or product, domestic or imported, unless specifically excluded. All services connected with the commodity also come under the ceiling. As a means of enforcing the order, stores are required to post the ceiling price of the most important items, designated as "cost of living" commodities. In addition, all wholesalers and retailers are automatically licensed as of the effective date of the order. Violators of the order may have their licenses revoked and thus be unable to continue business.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has estimated that about 60 percent of the foods and 75 percent of all other goods and services purchased by moderate-income families in large cities will be covered by the general price regulation. This estimate is for the Nation as a whole, and these percentages, of course, will vary from city to city.

Price Regulation of Commodities and Services

MAXIMUM PRICES

Maximum prices prescribed by the regulation are the highest prices charged by each individual seller for each commodity or service during March 1942. Retailers are required to keep available a complete file of these prices, which customers are privileged to consult on demand after July 1. Nothing in the regulation prevents sales below the established level. In the case of items designated by the Price Administrator as "cost of living" commodities, stores are required to post their ceiling prices conspicuously. The regulation lists more than 100 of the most important items which are considered to be "cost of living" commodities.

COMMODITY COVERAGE OF ORDER

The price ceilings established by the order cover all commodities not specifically excluded. Among the items on which fixed prices are imposed are most processed food commodities, including bread; beef, pork, and their products; sugar, fluid milk and cream sold at retail; ice cream; canned meats, soups, canned fruits and vegetables; canned fish and other seafoods; coffee; cereals and lard and shortening. In addition, the order applies to all clothing, shoes, and dry goods; soap; fuel; tobacco; drugs, toiletries, and sundries; furniture and furnishings; appliances and equipment and hardware and miscellaneous agricultural supplies.

EXCLUSIONS

Commodities not covered by the regulation fall generally into three classifications:

1. Those that are exempt because of provisions of the Emergency Price Control Act of 1942 either (a) because they do not fall within the act's definition of a "commodity"—this excludes advertising, newspapers, books, magazines, motion pictures, wages, common carrier and public utility rates, insurance, real estate, and professional fees; or (b) by reason of the act's special treatment of agricultural commodities unless and until they attain a level reflecting a substantial premium over parity.

2. Commodities which do not have organized markets and for which it would be almost impossible to determine maximum prices either on the basis of previous sales or prices for comparable articles. Examples are highly seasonal fresh vegetables, fresh fish and game, objects of art, and collector's items.

3. Primary raw materials, all prices for which are substantially controlled by ceilings already in effect at certain levels.

Specific exceptions.—Specifically listed as "excepted" in the regulations are—

1. Any raw and unprocessed agricultural commodity or greenhouse commodity while it remains in substantially its original state, except bananas. In general, prices of such commodities are fixed at the stage of first processing, although fresh fruits and vegetables, plants, flowers and the like are excluded entirely.

2. Eggs and poultry.

3. All milk products, including butter, cheese, condensed and evaporated milk (but not fluid milk sold at retail, cream sold at retail, and ice cream).

4. Flour (but not packaged cake mixes and other packaged flour mixes).

5. Mutton and lamb.

6. Fresh fish and seafood, and game.

7. Dried prunes, dry edible beans, leaf tobacco (whether dried or green), nuts (but not peanuts), linseed oil, linseed cake and linseed meal, mixed feed for animals, and manure.

8. Living animals, whether wild or domestic.
9. Books, magazines, motion pictures, periodicals, newspapers, and materials furnished for publication by any press association or feature service.
10. Domestic ores and ore concentrates.
11. Stumpage, logs, and pulpwood.
12. Stamps and coins; precious stones; antiques and knotted oriental rugs; paintings, etchings, sculptures, and other objects of art.
13. Used automobiles.
14. Wood and gum for naval stores (resin, turpentine, etc.) and naval stores prior to sale to industrial consumers, or prior to the first sale to a distributor. (However, all sales of naval stores on any exchange are *not* exempt.)
15. Securities ("securities" are defined as any notes, stocks, bonds, or instruments known as securities.)

Supplementary Regulation No. 1 to the general order, issued at the same time, lists several additional exceptions, including sales of all waste materials up to the level of the industrial consumer; zinc, lead and tin industrial residues; certain machines and parts manufactured in the course of subcontracting (and the services performed on these subcontracted materials); antimony ore and concentrates; and instrument jewel bearings.

Individual or special transactions.—To make provision for transactions of an individual or special nature the general regulation exempts the following sales and deliveries:

1. By hotels, restaurants, soda fountains, bars, cafes, or other similar establishments, of food or beverages prepared and sold for consumption on the premises.
2. To the United States or any of its agencies of such commodities or in such transactions as may be specified by supplementary regulations. These supplementary regulations will include broad categories of finished military equipment.
3. By a farmer, of commodities grown and processed on his farm, if the total of such sales or deliveries does not exceed \$75 in any one calendar month. (This permits the sale of small farm processing items such as smoked ham, bacon, maple syrup, cider, etc.)
4. By an owner, of his used personal or household effects or other personal property used by him.
5. By any merchant, farmer, artisan, or person who renders professional services, of his used supplies, or business, farm or professional equipment, not acquired or produced by him for the purpose of sale.
6. At a bona fide auction, of used household or personal effects.
7. By a breeder, trapper, or hunter, of pelts, furs, or other parts of wild animals raised by him, or trapped, shot, or killed by him, if the total of such sales or deliveries does not exceed \$75 in any one calendar month.
8. Of commodities sold without private profit in the course of any sale, fair, or bazaar, conducted for a period of not more than 15 days by any religious, charitable, or philanthropic organization.

Excepted services.—Personal services not connected with commodities, and professional services are excluded from the order. All other retail services having to do with the installation, maintenance, preservation, repair, storage, and distribution of commodities must be priced no higher than the highest levels charged in March 1942. (The "retail service" ceiling goes into effect July 1.)

Thus, the rates charged by automobile-repair shops, garages, tailors, laundries, dry cleaners, shoe repair establishments, etc., are covered by the regulation, but the prices set by barbers and beauty shops (services to the person) and the fees of doctors, dentists, and lawyers, etc. (professional services) are not.

Services that are not rendered at retail, for example, repair of machinery in a manufacturing plant by an outside contractor, come under the ceiling on May 11—the same date on which maximum prices apply to manufacturer and wholesaler.

The text of the general regulation lists "excepted services" as follows:

- a. Services of an employee to his employer.
- b. Personal services not rendered in connection with a commodity.
- c. Professional services.

- d. Motion pictures, theaters, and other entertainments.
- e. Services of a common carrier or public utility.
- f. Advertising services, including radio broadcasting.
- g. Insurance and underwriting services.
- h. Press association and feature services.
- i. Services relating solely to real property.
- j. Such other services as may be specified by supplementary regulations.

SALES PRICE RECORDS

Each establishment selling commodities or services covered by the regulations is required to keep its March 1942 sales price records, and prepare before July 1 a statement showing the highest prices it charged in March for these articles and the customary allowances, discounts, and other price differentials. After July 1, this record must be kept available for the examination of any person who wishes to see it. Thus, a person who feels that a store is charging more for a commodity than it did for the same item in March may demand to see the records.

PRICE ADJUSTMENTS

If the maximum prices established for any commodity fail equitably to distribute returns from the sale at retail of such commodity among producers, manufacturers, wholesalers, and retailers, the Price Administrator may by supplementary regulation establish such maximum prices or fix such base periods for the determination of the prices as will insure that each class of sellers shall receive a fair share of the return.

The regulation also provides an adjustment procedure for the benefit of any retail seller who finds that his maximum price of an item is "abnormally low" in relation to that of his competitor. The retailer may file an application for adjustment of that price in accordance with procedures established by the Office of Price Administration.

REGISTRATION AND LICENSING

All retailers and wholesalers will be required to register in accordance with regulations hereafter to be prescribed by the Price Administrator. In addition, all such dealers are automatically granted licenses to engage in their business of selling commodities or services. Persons violating any provision of the regulation are subject to the penalties provided by the Emergency Price Control Act. These penalties include fines of not more than \$5,000 or 1 year's imprisonment, or both; civil suits for treble damages, and revocation of the seller's license for not more than 12 months. Civil suits, however, may not be brought until July 31, 1942. All sellers are subject to criminal penalties, but in the case of buyers only those who purchase regulated commodities or services in the course of their trade or business may be prosecuted.

Regulation of Rents

Under the rent regulations, issued simultaneously with the general price regulation, areas housing approximately 76,000,000 people were designated as additional rental areas where rents must be stabilized or reduced in accordance with recommendations of the Price Administrator. The order specified 302 groups of communities in 46 States

and Puerto Rico, defined their boundaries, and recommended a maximum rent ceiling for each and that evictions be restrained. As a result of the order, the number of defense rental areas is increased from 21 to 323, and the total population affected is now about 86,000,000.

The recommendations of the Administrator would freeze rents in most of the defense areas, as of March 1, 1942, but in some localities the rents must be put back to levels in effect on January 1, April 1, or July 1, 1941. Under the Emergency Price Control Act if rents are not stabilized or reduced within 60 days in accordance with the recommendations, the Price Administrator may apply maximum rent regulations.



CONTROL OF MANPOWER AND PRICES IN SOUTH AFRICA

EFFECTIVE price control is becoming more difficult and more urgent in South Africa because of the wartime expansion in demand and because supplies, though not diminishing, cannot be increased proportionately. An article by R. H. Smith in the December 1941 issue of the South African Journal of Economics, describing the wartime price policies followed and the changes in working conditions, is summarized below.

At the beginning of 1941 the effects of the war were becoming more pronounced. Controls over imports and exports both in the Union and in the countries from which supplies had been coming were retarding the flow of goods. A state of full employment was being reached rapidly. Plant expansion and replacements were becoming increasingly difficult, and skilled labor, the supply of which had been short for several years, was rapidly becoming unobtainable. In July the Government took more rigid control over key industries, to bring about better utilization of resources, especially of manpower.

Manpower Measures

A Controller of Industrial Manpower was appointed in February 1941 to insure the best use of scarce skilled labor. Movement of workers from firm to firm has been regulated. To eliminate industrial fatigue and to secure maximum productivity, attempts have been made to reduce overtime work. By preventing employers from raising the wage level by bidding against each other for labor, and by reducing the amount of overtime work, the funds available for the purchase of restricted supplies are reduced. Government appeals made directly to workers to raise output in regular working hours indicate a recognition of the need for more production while at the same time curbing civilian purchasing power.

Cost-of-Living Allowances

However, the curbs on purchasing power have been accompanied by the rapid extension of cost-of-living allowances. They have been granted to workers generally—not only to those in the lowest income groups—and have contributed to maintenance of purchasing power at a high level. The author of the article here reviewed states that

the national savings campaign has done something to withdraw funds from the commodity markets, but adds "it is doubtful to what extent this sum represents money which would otherwise have been spent on consumption goods."

Price Regulation

Price policy was laid down in the National Emergency Regulations, providing a general ban on profiteering. Maximum retail prices were established on certain specified commodities by the National Supplies Control Board. Periodic changes in the list of controlled prices were made in 1941. Heavy penalties were imposed for infractions, where it could be proved that the rate of profit had been increased over the level of August 1939. The approximate percentage change in retail commodity prices from August 1939 to August 1941 for a selected list of commodities is shown below, for the city of Durban.

	Percent of change		Percent of change
Bacon	+5	Lard	-5
Biscuits	+12	Milk	+15
Bread	-14	Meat	+13
Butter	0	Oatmeal	+13
Coffee	+34	Rice	+62
Fish	+32	Soap	-19
Jam	+15	Tea	+45

Rises appear to have been greater in the second than in the first year of the war for bacon, coal, coffee, jam, meat, rice, and tea. Biscuits, bread, candles, fish, lard, condensed milk, and soap rose less in the second year than in the first. Butter, matches, breakfast oats, floor and shoe polishes, and sugar have not undergone any wartime change of price.

According to the retail-price index of South Africa, fuel, light, and rent have moved much more slowly than food or sundries. From August 1939 to November 1941, the food index in 9 urban areas, advanced from 977 to 1,140, as compared with a change from 993 to 1,105 in the weighted average for food, fuel, light, rent, and sundries. The base period used is 1938, represented by 1,000.

At wholesale, prices of local commodities rose more in the second than in the first year of war, but this advance was scarcely comparable with that registered for imported commodities. Again the food rise was the most significant—16.5 percent for grain and meals from July 1939 to August 1941; 20 percent for groceries; and 12 percent for meat. Dairy products advanced only 5 percent. The largest individual increases from the pre-war level were 68 percent for metals and 60 percent for building materials.

Administration of price control was altered in August 1941 by establishing a Price Controller, and subsequently two deputies, to take over the functions previously exercised by the National Supplies Control Board. Price policy was restated, and wide powers of investigation and decision were granted to the Controller and his inspectors. The "unjust profit" clause was not applicable to any commodity for which the Controller had fixed the price, nor to farm-producer sales, export prices, security prices, or to extra-business transactions. Price fixing was extended on October 10 to include prices charged by both manufacturer and wholesaler. Of 23 commodities for which

maximum retail prices were already fixed, 18 now had their manufacturer's price determined, and 19 their wholesale prices. Gazetted maximum prices have tended to become standard prices.

Except for farmer sales, private noncommercial exchange, and stock-exchange transactions, some form of price control has been placed over the whole of the South African economy. For example, the Rents Amendment Act of 1940 defined reasonable rent as 6 percent on land plus 10 percent on buildings (later reduced to 8 percent). Rents were frozen at their lowest level since March 1941. In October 1941 the prices for servicing motor vehicles, laundering, dry cleaning, hairdressing, and boot and shoe repairing were limited to the September 1941 level. On October 24, existing stocks of commodities were frozen at the October 15 prices; this was a temporary measure intended to facilitate new departures in price control, under war measure No. 44 of 1941, which amended a former war measure (No. 33) in several important respects. A significant provision of the new measure is regulation of profits. The controller may now fix a maximum price for any transaction or service and freeze prices or charges to the level of a specified period. Prices may be established absolutely or relative to cost.

Industrial Disputes

RECENT STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics show a decline of about 15 percent in the amount of idleness and the number of workers involved in new strikes during April 1942 as compared with March, although the number of stoppages was about 29 percent greater than in March. The estimates for April, together with comparative figures for the preceding 3 months and figures on strikes which interfered with war work during the first 4 months of 1942, are given in the table below.

As compared with April a year ago, when the widespread bituminous-coal stoppage occurred, strikes in April 1942 were only 75 percent as numerous, about one-tenth as many workers were involved, and the idleness during strikes was only one-twentieth as great. Although the number of strikes in April 1942 was 6 percent greater than the 5-year predefense average for April (1935-39), the number of workers involved was only one-third as great and the amount of idleness only one-sixth as great as the respective 5-year averages for April.

Trend of Strikes, January to April 1942

Month	All strikes ¹			Strikes affecting war work ²		
	Number of strikes beginning in month	Number of workers involved	Number of man-days idle	Number of strikes beginning in month	Number of workers involved	Number of man-days idle
<i>1942</i>						
January.....	155	32,500	390,000	27	11,605	46,197
February.....	190	57,000	425,000	50	24,587	118,700
March.....	240	65,000	450,000	66	34,957	166,680
April.....	310	55,000	375,000	91	26,255	173,513

¹ Figures are not final but are subject to change as later information is received.

² As determined by a Joint Committee of representatives from the War, Navy, and Labor Departments, Maritime Commission, War Labor Board, and War Production Board. The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not participate in the selection of these strikes, but it does furnish the statistics after the Joint Committee determines which strikes affected war work.

There were more strikes affecting war work during April than in any of the preceding months. The amount of idleness in strikes affecting war work was also greater in April than in the earlier months, principally because of the strike in Fall River, Mass., textile mills which began in March but continued during the first part of April. The number of workers involved in new strikes affecting war work was smaller in April than in March and about the same as in February.

The largest strikes in progress during April were (1) the Fall River textile strike,¹ which involved about 16,000 workers from March 24 to

¹ See Monthly Labor Review, May 1942 (p. 1131).

April 6; (2) the 2-day strike of about 6,000 workers in Paterson (N. J.) silk dyeing and printing plants, March 31, and April 1, which resulted a few days later in a wage increase of 10 cents per hour for men and 7 cents for women; (3) the wage strike (April 1-4), involving about 2,500 painters and linoleum workers in Detroit (Mich.), terminated under agreement that the wage issues should be arbitrated; (4) a strike on two successive Saturdays of about 2,400 Hudson Coal Co. employees at Olyphant (Pa.), where the company scheduled a workday of 5 hours for Saturday and the men insisted on a 7-hour day if work was to be performed on Saturday; and (5) the brief strike (April 6-8) of about 2,000 employees of chain cleaning and dyeing shops in New York City and Paterson (N. J.), which resulted in wage increases for the workers involved.



DECISIONS OF THE NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD, JANUARY-APRIL 1942

THE National War Labor Board, created by Executive order on January 12, 1942, is authorized to take jurisdiction and "finally determine" all labor disputes which might interrupt war production. Although the Board has encouraged disputing parties to utilize mediation and voluntary arbitration, by April 30 the Board had issued 16 decisions representing final settlements of labor disputes which had not yielded to mediation. A survey of these decisions reveals the trend of policy being established which will have an important effect on industrial relations for the duration of the war.

Refusal to Take Jurisdiction

In two policy-making cases the Board warned parties to a labor dispute that it will refuse to take jurisdiction over matters covered by an existing union agreement, or until procedures for settlement provided by an existing agreement between the parties have been exhausted. In declining to take jurisdiction in the dispute between the Postal Telegraph Cable Co. and the American Communication Association (C. I. O.), the Chairman of the War Labor Board stated: "This Board will not be used by either management or labor to escape from the terms of any voluntary collective-bargaining agreement while that agreement is still in effect." In the case of the General Motors Corporation and United Automobile Workers of America (C. I. O.) the Board unanimously stated: " * * * in view of the fact that the dispute has not been submitted for adjustment under the machinery set up under this contract for settlement, this matter is referred back to the parties to be considered in accordance with the contract now in effect."

Wage Disputes

Wage matters in large variety were submitted to the Board during the first months of its existence. The problem of the general level of wages for an entire company, increases for particular groups, North-South differentials, and penalty rates for work at night and on holidays have all been considered and decided. The trend of decisions on these questions and the reasoning therefor are indicated in the following selected cases:

Aluminum Co. of America.—This case involved principally the demand of the Aluminum Workers of America (C. I. O.) for elimination of existing wage differentials between the northern and southern plants of the corporation. This would have resulted in an increase of 18 to 20 cents per hour in the beginning wage in southern plants, and similar increases in each job classification. The majority of the Board, refusing to remove this North-South differential completely, decided to increase beginners' wages in southern plants by 7 cents an hour, making corresponding adjustments for all other employees. In their dissent, the four employer members proposed to reduce the differential by 5 cents an hour. The majority opinion supporting the decision sheds light on the factors which the Board considers in determining wages. Among these factors are the cost of living of workers in each area, the prevailing wages in competing plants, the ability of the company to pay the increase, the incentive effect of higher wages, and the effect of any increase on the war production program.

The majority is satisfied that complete elimination of the differential would have an undesirable disrupting effect at this time on the general economy of the areas involved. Since southern industries generally are adjusted to prevailing differentials, a sudden elimination of the differential in a major industry, such as aluminum, is bound to disturb directly and indirectly the wage and labor policies of many other industries. * * * A sudden elimination of the wage differential in a major industry is bound to produce repercussions and negative effects on industrial-expansion programs, competition for labor and the continued operations of some industrial concerns. It is obvious that such effects should be avoided during the war period because they are not in the best interests of aiding the prosecution of our war program.

The question of shift differentials for the New Kensington (Pa.) plant of the Aluminum Co. was also decided by the Board. Most of the plant's production employees work on a weekly rotating shift schedule. The company had added $\frac{1}{2}$ cent an hour to the wages of all workers on the basis that they all do some night work. The union asked for a differential of 10 cents an hour for all work outside the regular day shift. The Board, by a vote of 7 to 5, decided that the company should pay, in addition to the present rates, a premium of 3 cents an hour for the "B" shift and of 5 cents an hour for the "C" shift. The majority decision stressed the disadvantages of work outside the regular day hours, and granted premium rates even though the night work was rotated and therefore shared equally. The Board based its finding as to the actual rates to be paid on the company's practice in other plants. A minority opinion, written by a public member of the Board and supported by the four labor members, recommended premium rates of 5 cents an hour for "B" shift and 7 cents for "C" shift work.

St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co.—In a unanimous decision, the Board granted a wage increase of 25 cents per day to all employees of the St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co. The dispute arose during wage negotiations between the company and the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (C. I. O.). The decision of the Board was based primarily on two factors: (1) Comparative wage rates in the Tri-State District (Missouri, Kansas, and Oklahoma) and (2) the ability of the company to pay increased wages. On the first point, an investigation was conducted by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics on the wages paid by other zinc-mining companies in the area. The survey revealed that the company's wages were on

a par with the average wages in the Tri-State District but significantly less than the highest rates in the area. The Board said:

To deny all status to the claim for an increased wage by freezing the wages of the St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co. to the average of the relatively low wage Tri-State area would be improperly to deny the benefits of collective bargaining to the employees of this company. Consideration of the proper wage to be paid by the St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co. must surely take into account the range of wages which are paid in its area and should not be restricted to using the average wage as an infallible standard.

On the second point, the financial ability of the company, the Board decided that "the operations of the company have not resulted in financial weakness," and the "St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co. is undoubtedly financially able to provide the wage increase in question without jeopardizing the soundness of its financial position or the continual operation of its mines."

International Harvester Co.—In addition to the union-security issue, discussed below, the International Harvester case included two points concerning wages and rates. The first involved a union request for a general wage increase of 12½ cents per hour and an increase in the minimum rates to 75 cents per hour for women and 85 cents per hour for men. The second was the question of penalty rates for Saturday and Sunday work.

With regard to wages, a compromise was unanimously adopted by the Board, giving an increase of 4½ cents per hour to all employees, retroactive to January 15, 1942; a similar increase in all beginners' rates; and a proposal that wages be subject to review 6 months from January 15, upon 30 days' notice by either party, and thereafter subject to review each 3 months upon 30 days' notice by either party. In its opinion the Board stated its general position regarding wages during the war emergency:

It would seem that for the duration of the war the following basic principles should be considered minimum guarantees in any wage issues considered by the National War Labor Board.

First, all workmen shall receive wages sufficiently high to enable them to maintain a standard of living compatible with health and decency.

Second, the real wage levels which have been previously arrived at through the channels of collective bargaining and which do not impede maximum production of war materials shall be reasonably protected. This does not mean that labor can expect to receive throughout the war upward changes in its wage structure which will enable it to keep pace with upward changes in the cost of living. On the other hand, every attempt should be made to protect the real wages of labor to the point that they do not drop below a standard of living sufficient to maintain health and decency. Without doubt wages in substandard brackets should not only be increased to meet changes in cost of living, but, whenever possible, they should be raised to the standard level.

Third, to the extent that it can be done without inflationary effects, labor should be encouraged to negotiate through the processes of collective bargaining for fair and reasonable upward wage adjustments as an offset against increases in the cost of living. Labor should not be put in an economic strait jacket during the war without redress to some such agency as the War Labor Board which has authority to grant fair and deserved wage adjustments.

On the question of Saturday, Sunday, and holiday penalty rates, the Board decided that on operations which call for a 24-hour day and a 7-day week there should be no penalty rates for Saturdays, Sundays, or holidays as such. Instead, time and a half should be paid for all work beyond 8 hours a day or 40 hours a week, with work shifts arranged so that every worker would have at least 1 day's rest in 7. If an emergency required an employee to work the seventh consecutive day, he should be paid at a penalty rate of double time.

Union Security

The War Labor Board has issued several divided opinions on the controversial issue of union security. Although unions have in a number of instances requested the "union shop," in no case decided prior to May 1, 1942, has the Board ordered that a "closed shop" or a "union shop" provision be included in an agreement. Instead, the Board has met the demand for union security by granting some form of "maintenance of membership," under which employees who have joined the union or who may join in the future are required to retain membership as a condition of continued employment. Variations of this principle, adopted by the Board, have the effect of protecting individual or group rights to veto the arrangement, either by allowing present members to resign from the union before the agreement takes effect, or allowing members to decide by majority vote whether or not membership maintenance should be required.¹

Marshall Field & Co.—In this case the Board decided, with one employer member dissenting, to enforce a voluntary maintenance-of-membership provision and check-off for the duration of the agreement. Each member of the union, the Textile Workers Union of America (C. I. O.), is to certify in writing, after the agreement is signed, his willingness to be bound by such provision. The pertinent clause in the agreement reads as follows:

The union recognizes that no employee is required to join any union but that every employee has the right to choose of his own free will as to whether or not he will or will not join any organization.

All employees who are now members of the union or who may in the future become members will be required as a condition of employment with the company to maintain their membership in good standing during the life of this contract: *Provided*, That this provision shall apply only to employees, who, after the consummation of this agreement, individually and voluntarily certify in writing that they authorize union dues deductions, and will, as a condition of employment, maintain their membership in the union in good standing during the life of the contract.

Upon receipt of the above authorization, the mill agrees to deduct from the weekly earnings union dues in the amount of 25 cents per week, to be paid to the union.

Walker-Turner Co.—This case came to the Board for decision on several matters, including the request of a local of the United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America (C. I. O.) for a "union shop," that is, for a clause in the agreement requiring all present employees of the company to join the union as a condition of continued employment and all employees subsequently hired to join the union within a stipulated time. The Board, by a vote of 8 to 4, the employer representatives dissenting, decided to grant a "maintenance-of-membership" clause of a type different from that outlined above in the Marshall Field case. Briefly, it requires (1) all members of the union who were members in good standing at the expiration date of the former union agreement with the company, or who have since become members, shall remain members in good standing for the period of the agreement; (2) each employee who may in the future join the union shall sign a card which voluntarily binds him to remain in good standing; (3) if the union certifies to the company that a

¹ In two important cases which the Board settled through mediation, the union's demand for security was satisfied by the employer's assent to a clause in the union agreement pledging no discrimination against union members and agreeing not to discourage membership in the union or encourage membership in any other union. (Pullman Standard Car Manufacturing Co. and Goodyear Aircraft Corp.)

union member is not in good standing and the company wants a review of this certification it may treat the matter as a grievance and submit it to grievance procedure, including arbitration; (4) if the arbitrator supports the union, he shall direct the company either to discharge the employee or to deduct from his wages the amount of his financial obligations to the union for the period of the agreement, and the employee shall lose his seniority rights under the agreement.

The majority opinion supporting this formula rested its case largely on the history of bargaining relations in the Walker-Turner plant, particularly the antagonism which the company had exhibited toward this local union. The opinion noted that wages paid by the company were "substandard" and that the union was losing members as a result of its failure to obtain substantial wage increases. After pointing out that the union had faithfully carried out its agreement not to strike during the emergency, the opinion stated:

The Board * * * must continually bear in mind the broad principle that neither management nor labor shall take advantage of one another as a result of the changed conditions brought about by the war, either by direct aggression or by indirectly bringing about a situation which leads to a natural process of disintegration.

The dissenting opinion of the four employer members of the Board stated in part:

The principles involved here are fundamental. We are not concerned with a voluntary agreement accepted by management, union, and employees in the process of collective bargaining. On the contrary, we are concerned with a directive order of this Board requiring a union-maintenance provision over the objection of management without first ascertaining whether the workers affected approved or not. To arbitrarily impose these obligations without the consent of those affected, in our opinion, will tend to destroy the cooperation so essential to maximum production.

The opinion of the majority creates the impression that their decision is founded upon voluntary action of the workers in that they are, or were, members of the labor organization which requires protection from this Board. With this we disagree. When these employees joined the union, they did not agree to forfeit their jobs or their seniority rights if they exercised their right to withdraw from the union. In any organization governed by democratic principles, its members retain the right to be heard in opposition to policies and to resign at will. Why should the members of labor unions be denied these rights?

On this point the majority opinion makes reply as follows:

It is seen that by ordering this clause the Board rejects the recommendation of the minority members of this panel, that each employee now be required to sign a card expressing his willingness to be bound by the clause. Under the peculiar facts of this case, it is clear that such a requirement would defeat the very end for which a clause was inserted. Here, we have a situation in which a union which refrained from striking has already begun to disintegrate. They have been unable through no fault of their own to get for their membership a wage to which that membership not without reason feels entitled. To require the union now to recanvass the membership in the light of these circumstances would merely accelerate the forces of disintegration already in operation. The result might well be no more than an expression of resentment against the wage provisions of the contract, which the negotiating agents of the union have been obliged to accept for the reason referred to above.

Before issuing this decision, the Board examined the constitution and bylaws of the union to determine whether the dues and membership requirements were reasonable. In addition, the decision placed certain restrictions on the union in this regard: (1) There must be made available to each employee eligible to join the union a printed copy of the constitution and bylaws; (2) dues and initiation fees may not be changed during the life of the agreement except by the inter-

national union; (3) employees, in order to maintain good standing in the union, need pay only regular monthly dues or fines and comply with other penalties imposed by the union for specific acts involving violations of the agreement or constitution and bylaws of the union; and (4) the union must agree that members who are delinquent for failure to pay dues or by disciplinary action will be reinstated with waiver of past dues to April 1, 1942, and without penalty.

The labor members of the Board, although concurring in the decision, criticized the majority decision for imposing these limits on the union. In their concurring opinion they stated:

There is no justification for introducing into this decision any limitation on the union in regard to the amount of its dues. This was not an issue in the case. No complaint was raised in regard thereto, or any mention made of the possibility of future disputes on this score. Thus fortuitously to regulate the internal affairs of a union is an act which has grave implications and may create endless difficulties.

International Harvester Co.—On the question of union security, the Board, again by a vote of 8 to 4, the employer members dissenting, ordered a "maintenance-of-membership" clause included in the various plant-wide union agreements with this company, but only on condition that a majority of local union members vote in favor of such a clause by secret ballot. This referendum is to take place under the supervision of the Board.²

The unions involved in this case were the Farm Equipment Workers Organizing Committee (C. I. O.), two A. F. of L. federal labor unions, and the United Automobile Workers of America (C. I. O.). Although several unions were involved, no question of jurisdiction was raised by this case. Elections held by the National Labor Relations Board had determined the bargaining representatives in each of eight plants of the company and the unions had agreed among themselves that in each plant all other union members should join the majority union.

In dissenting from the majority decision, the employer members of the Board offered alternative suggestions which would have the effect of allowing each individual union member the right to decide whether or not he wished to be bound by the membership-maintenance provision. The dissenting opinion stated in part:

Again we question whether it is the function of this administrative board to impose upon an employer conditions which require him to discharge even a single worker because of failure to maintain union membership. We emphasize that in this order each union worker is denied the right to decide individually whether he wants to retain or not his union status for a stated period.

In support of its decision, the majority opinion stated:

When a union-security program is indicated as desirable, recourse should be had to the principle of voluntary acceptance by those employees who belong to the union. Various procedures may be adopted to effectuate this principle in the light of the facts of individual cases. In the present case, the democratic principle of majority rule has been adopted as the most equitable application of the principle of voluntary acceptance. So long as the principle of voluntary membership in a union is preserved, there is no good reason for denying union security in a given case if the facts of that case, when considered on their merits, support the conclusion that industrial harmony in that particular plant will be increased thereby or that a maximum production of war goods will be enhanced. When a majority of workers in a given plant vote in accordance with democratic

² Elections held during the latter part of May by the War Labor Board resulted in approval of the maintenance-of-membership clause by a vote of approximately 9 to 1 in each of the 8 plants involved in this case.

procedures to be bound by some union-maintenance plan it does not follow that those workers in the minority who refuse to be bound by the will of the majority have been denied some fundamental American right if they are excluded from employment in that plant.

Remington Rand Co.—The United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers (C. I. O.), representing employees in four plants of the company, had asked a "union shop" clause and voluntary check-off of union dues. Both were refused by the company. When the case was being considered by the Board, the union emphasized the past antiunion activities of the company and held that some form of union security was needed as protection against future discrimination. During negotiations, however, the union relinquished its demand for the union shop or any maintenance-of-membership provision. The Board, therefore, in a unanimous decision, approved the inclusion of the following dues-check-off clause in the union agreement:

The company agrees to deduct an amount not exceeding \$1 per month from the wages of such members of the union as individually and voluntarily certify in writing that they authorize union-dues deductions. The company will continue to make such deductions so long as the voluntary authorization, which shall be subject to cancellation upon 60 days' written notice from the member, is continued in effect. All sums deducted in this manner shall be turned over by the company to the financial secretary of the union.

Federal Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co.—With employer members dissenting, the War Labor Board ordered the insertion of a maintenance-of-membership clause in the agreement between the Federal Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co. and the Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America (C. I. O.). The pertinent clause reads as follows:

If any member is certified by the union not to be in good standing as defined in section 3 of this article, the case may be treated by the company as a grievance and submitted to the grievance machinery. If through this process such employee is declared not to be in good standing the arbiter shall discharge the employee unless as a condition of continued employment the employee agrees to request the company, in writing, to deduct from his pay his financial obligations to the union. In any case in which the company is so requested to make deductions the company will deduct from the first pay period of each month during the term of this contract and pay to the union a sum equivalent to the union dues, and also if any fine is imposed upon the employee a sum equivalent to that fine.

Arguments in the majority and dissenting opinion follow closely those advanced in the Walker-Turner and International Harvester cases. In addition to a general objection to union-security clauses imposed by a Government agency, the employer members of the Board object specifically to the failure to permit individual union members to state definitely that they wish to be bound by the membership-maintenance provision, or allowing each member an opportunity to resign from the union before the provision goes into effect. The majority opinion answers this argument by pointing out that the maintenance-of-membership clause ordered by the Board has no absolute requirement for the discharge of a member of the union except by his own choice, and does not require any employee to join the union at any time. The majority opinion states further:

There is a basic relation between maintenance of membership, maintenance of the contract, and maintenance of production.

An increasing number of companies recognize certain values in the maintenance-of-membership clause. These managers hold some such views as these: A stable responsible union is better for management than an unstable irresponsible union. An unstable membership contributes to an irresponsible

leadership. Too often members of unions do not maintain their membership because they resent the discipline of a responsible leadership. A rival but less responsible leadership feels the pull of the temptation to obtain and maintain leadership by relaxing discipline, by refusing to cooperate with the company, and sometimes by unfair and demagogic agitation and attacks on the company. It is to the interest of management, these business leaders have found, to cooperate with the unions for the maintenance of a more stable, responsible leadership.

Union leaders sign a contract for all the members and are responsible to both the union and the company for the maintenance of this contract. For this reason they feel that the company and the union should cooperate in the maintenance of this responsible membership. Holding the membership, they argue, is essential to holding the membership to the contract. Cooperation between the company and the union for the maintenance of membership can make for the cooperative maintenance of production on higher levels.

Jurisdictional Disputes

In a recent statement the Chairman of the War Labor Board announced that all jurisdictional disputes coming before the Board would be referred to the labor members of the Board for adjustment. Under the new procedure, any dispute which cannot be settled by the labor members is to be referred to a "group or individual" appointed by the presidents of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations for a final and binding determination.

Before this procedure was instituted, however, the Board in at least two cases (noted below) considered jurisdictional disputes between rival union organizations.

Spicer Manufacturing Corporation.—In building an addition to the company's plant the question arose as to whether its own maintenance employees, who were represented by the C. I. O., should install the lighting, the wiring for power equipment, and the machinery, or whether this should be done by A. F. of L. construction workers under a subcontractor. The company expressed its willingness to comply with any decision reached between the two labor organizations.

In response to a request by both the employer and labor representatives on the Board, the Chairman, in consultation with the other public members, made the decision for the Board. He ruled that—

* * * The American Federation of Labor construction workers shall include in the completion of this construction job the installation of lighting and power equipment and the installation of that part of the approximately 400 machines newly purchased for the job that has not already been installed. The C. I. O. maintenance workers, employees of the Spicer Co., shall install in the new structure all of the old machines, approximately 1,200, that are to be moved out of the older portion of the plant.

Los Angeles Railway Corporation and Los Angeles Motor Coach Co.—This case involved a long-standing jurisdictional dispute between the Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America (A. F. of L.), the Transport Workers Union (C. I. O.), and the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen (unaffiliated). Climaxing a prolonged legal battle, the Superior Court of California had recently issued a ruling which in effect legalized a closed-shop contract between the A. F. of L. local and the company, and the Supreme Court of California had refused the petition of the C. I. O. for review of the case. The C. I. O. then appealed to the War Labor Board to take jurisdiction and finally determine the controversy. The War Labor Board, by a vote of 10-2, with the 2

C. I. O. representatives on the Board dissenting, refused to intervene further in the case. The majority opinion stated:

What the C. I. O. local now requests this Board to do is to reexplore the findings of the Superior Court of California as well as that of the Supreme Court of California and in effect stay the consequences of the decisions of those courts until such time as the C. I. O. has perfected such further court appeals as it may wish to bring. As a matter of principle, the National War Labor Board should not and will not adopt such a policy. Disappointing as the decision of the Supreme Court of California may be to the C. I. O. local, the fact remains that the Superior Court of California has spoken on the issue as to whether or not the A. F. L. union is a company-dominated union. * * *

Hence, the decision of the Superior Court is binding upon the National War Labor Board insofar as any finding concerning the nature of the closed-shop contract between the companies and the A. F. L. union is concerned. It certainly does not fall within the province of the National War Labor Board to supersede the jurisdiction of the Courts of California.



ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, APRIL 1942

THE United States Conciliation Service, during April 1942, disposed of 942 situations involving 702,665 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations 118 were strikes and lock-outs involving 44,754 workers; 538 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 251,160 workers. Fifty disputes were certified during the month to the National War Labor Board, and jurisdiction was assumed by other agencies in 43 others. The remaining 193 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 29 major industrial fields, such as building trades and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 45 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico (table 3).

TABLE 1

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TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, April 1942, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled.....	942	702,665
Disputes.....	656	295,914
Strikes.....	112	40,602
Threatened strikes.....	174	81,039
Lock-outs.....	6	4,152
Controversies.....	364	170,121
Other situations.....	193	25,557
Investigations.....	53	11,007
Technical services.....	7	2,569
Arbitrations.....	61	8,011
Requests for information.....	4	7
Consultations.....	45	96
Special services of Commissioners.....	19	3,858
Complaints.....	4	9
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	93	381,194
To National War Labor Board.....	50	363,485
To National Labor Relations Board.....	38	16,334
To other Federal Agencies.....	4	1,250
To nongovernmental agencies.....	1	125

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, April 1942, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	749	677,108	193	25,557	942	702,665
Agriculture.....	3	2,062			3	2,062
Automobile.....	2	1,290	2	21	4	1,311
Building trades.....	68	47,319	18	1,251	86	48,570
Chemicals.....	20	3,066	4	400	24	3,466
Communications.....	3	6,812			3	6,812
Domestic and personal.....	8	688	7	249	15	937
Electrical equipment.....	30	18,799	7	1,326	37	20,125
Food.....	58	32,243	9	650	67	32,893
Furniture and finished lumber.....	24	6,847	5	408	29	7,255
Iron and steel.....	129	61,543	24	3,008	153	64,551
Leather.....	10	3,622	1	2	11	3,624
Lumber.....	23	4,933	12	413	35	5,346
Machinery.....	57	45,619	9	401	66	46,020
Maritime.....	5	4,242			5	4,242
Mining.....	5	6,757	2	1,050	7	7,807
Motion pictures.....	1	7			1	7
Nonferrous metals.....	30	40,421	6	565	36	40,986
Paper.....	9	1,202	2	32	11	1,234
Petroleum.....	7	1,416	7	1,116	14	2,532
Printing.....	8	454	6	415	14	869
Professional.....	2	310			2	310
Rubber.....	7	3,491	2	880	9	4,371
Stone, clay, and glass.....	35	8,311	2	21	37	8,332
Textile.....	55	101,447	23	3,560	78	105,007
Tobacco.....	1	143	2	6	3	149
Trade.....	35	7,801	6	41	41	7,842
Transportation.....	51	18,090	8	1,125	59	19,215
Transportation equipment.....	37	238,942	8	6,132	45	245,074
Utilities.....	8	4,267			8	4,267
Unclassified.....	18	4,964	21	2,485	39	7,449

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, April 1942, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All States.....	749	677, 108	193	25, 557	942	702, 665
Alabama.....	14	5, 551	2	250	16	5, 801
Arizona.....	6	5, 772	1	64	7	5, 836
Arkansas.....	3	318			3	318
California.....	52	23, 589	10	771	62	24, 360
Colorado.....	10	2, 621	3	901	13	3, 522
Connecticut.....	19	28, 785	1	300	20	29, 085
Delaware.....	7	723			7	723
District of Columbia.....	4	1, 078	7	260	11	1, 338
Florida.....	21	2, 971	6	157	27	3, 128
Georgia.....	9	1, 322	1	34	10	1, 356
Idaho.....	3	146	1	200	4	346
Illinois.....	50	17, 141	15	1, 647	65	18, 788
Indiana.....	23	7, 828	15	1, 620	38	9, 448
Iowa.....	7	952	6	21	13	973
Kansas.....	10	1, 059	1	7	11	1, 066
Kentucky.....	5	636	4	687	9	1, 323
Louisiana.....	11	795	11	1, 518	22	2, 313
Maine.....	4	3, 035	1	4	5	3, 039
Maryland.....	5	9, 563	5	6, 673	10	16, 236
Massachusetts.....	23	75, 735	5	142	28	75, 877
Michigan.....	68	231, 613	13	1, 950	81	233, 563
Minnesota.....	9	1, 148	1	77	10	1, 225
Mississippi.....	3	1, 260			3	1, 260
Missouri.....	24	12, 625	9	553	33	13, 178
Montana.....	2	66	1	70	3	136
Nebraska.....	5	567	1	1	6	568
New Hampshire.....	1	675			1	675
New Jersey.....	25	24, 531	4	535	29	25, 066
New Mexico.....	1	1, 800	1	1	2	1, 801
New York.....	79	47, 404	18	2, 164	97	49, 568
North Carolina.....	13	14, 016	2	2	15	14, 018
Ohio.....	64	28, 838	10	336	74	29, 174
Oklahoma.....	8	1, 143			8	1, 143
Oregon.....	6	903	2	33	8	936
Pennsylvania.....	53	51, 670	5	980	58	52, 650
Puerto Rico.....	5	10, 551	1	4	6	10, 555
Rhode Island.....	1	7, 600	8	20	9	7, 620
South Carolina.....	8	6, 951	3	2, 001	11	8, 952
Tennessee.....	26	4, 679	1	200	27	4, 879
Texas.....	15	2, 461	3	262	18	2, 723
Utah.....	3	665	3	154	6	819
Vermont.....	1	325			1	325
Virginia.....	7	1, 377	2	35	9	1, 412
Washington.....	6	7, 953			6	7, 953
West Virginia.....	14	19, 288	2	350	16	19, 638
Wisconsin.....	16	7, 379	8	573	24	7, 952

Housing Conditions

DISCONTINUANCE OF NONESSENTIAL CONSTRUCTION

CONSTRUCTION of nonessential projects which use material and construction equipment needed in the war effort is forbidden by order of the U. S. War Production Board. The order (Conservation, L-41) became effective on April 9, 1942, and places all new publicly and privately financed construction under rigid control. Exempt projects include those that will become the property of Army, Navy, Coast Guard, Maritime Commission, and other listed agencies of the Federal Government; those for the reconstruction or restoration of residential property that has been damaged or destroyed since January 1, 1942, by fire, flood, tornado, earthquake, or the public enemy; and projects covered by an earlier order which concerns the production and distribution of petroleum. Ordinary maintenance and repair work necessary to return a structure to sound working condition without a change of design is not affected. Projects already under construction may be stopped if the scarce materials required can be put to more effective use in the war program, but in general the order applies to new construction. Shortages of material and the need to conserve manpower and equipment for war purposes led to the issuance of this order, according to the War Production Board. Many of the materials required in construction are largely used for war production.

The policy of the U. S. Supplies Priority Allocation Board, announced on October 9, 1941, was that no priority assistance would be given to nonessential construction. Under the terms of the latest order it is provided that no residential construction (except maintenance and repair work) may be started without permission, if its estimated cost is \$500 or more. Expenditures without permission are limited to \$1,000 for any particular agricultural building or project, and \$5,000 for commercial, industrial, recreational, institutional, highway, roadway, subsurface, and utilities construction, whether financed by public or private funds. In computing costs the amount spent on the project within 12 months of the date of beginning construction and subsequent to April 7, 1942, is included.

For projects granted priority assistance by decision of the War Production Board, authority to commence construction will be issued by the Director of Industry Operations on appropriate forms. The Federal Housing Administration has made its facilities available in the administration of the order. Applications for authority to build must be filed with local FHA offices, also on specified forms. Decisions as to whether a project is eligible for recommendation to the WPB will be made by the local FHA officer, on the basis of criteria established by the Director of Industry Operations of the War Pro-

duction Board. Final decisions rest with the Administrator. Petitions denied by the local FHA offices may be appealed. The appeal board is to consist of the administrator of the order, a representative of labor, and a representative of the end-product branch of the WPB within whose jurisdiction the class of project or construction would fall.

The full text of the order is given in Victory (Office for Emergency Management, Washington, D. C.), April 14, 1942.



PUBLIC HOUSING IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1940-41

OWING to the critical housing shortage in Washington, D. C., the emphasis of the District of Columbia Alley Dwelling Authority has been placed upon construction of additional dwellings on vacant sites rather than upon reclamation of slum areas. However, the staff of the Authority is noting slum-reclamation sites that can be used for a post-war program, unless they are a sufficient menace to public health to require earlier action. In addition to its regular duties the Authority is acting for other Federal public agencies in the construction and management of defense housing projects.

According to the annual report of the Authority for the fiscal year 1940-41, the dwellings completed and occupied totaled 915 as of June 30, 1941. There were 996 units under construction, most of which were completed and occupied by the close of the calendar year. Approximately 1,809 were in the planning stage at the end of the fiscal year, bringing the aggregate to 3,720 units.

Rents charged to residents of housing properties constructed between 1935 and 1938 under the original Alley Dwelling Act were on an economic basis. They provided no profit, but were sufficient to cover interest, amortization of capital costs, and all current expenses, and to provide essential reserves during the life of the properties. No subsidy was established by Congress at that time. During the fiscal year covered by the report under review, a plan for application of annual contributions in the form of graded rents was adopted on dwellings financed through a United States Housing Authority loan. This plan made it possible for the Authority to accept tenants whose incomes were on the relief level and, encouraging economic progress, to retain them by gradually raising rents until they reach the economic level. No tenant pays more than an economic rent, and several families have improved their economic position sufficiently to rent privately owned dwellings. However, wartime conditions have resulted in higher rentals and fewer available units among the privately owned dwellings.

In tenant selection the Authority has sought to include a small dynamic group whose influence will be beneficial in each project. Families receiving public and private financial assistance have been accepted, as well as tenants who were fully self-supporting but unable to pay a commercial or profit-producing rent.

As the work of large-scale tenant selection is essentially temporary, the Authority supplements its permanent staff at peak periods with a group of temporary workers principally drawn from among social workers.

Court Decisions

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR¹

"Cooperative" Not Controlled by Members Held Subject to Wage-Hour Law

BY denying review of a circuit court decision, the Supreme Court has left in effect a holding that the Fair Labor Standards Act applies to working members of a "cooperative" when the control of its operations is exercised by a manager rather than by the working members.² The decision of the circuit court reversed a district court ruling and upheld the contention of the Wage and Hour Division that the so-called cooperative involved in this case was organized in order to circumvent provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The circuit court also ordered issuance of an injunction against the Caribbean Embroidery Cooperative, Inc., and Santiago R. Palmer and his wife, Magdalena, managers of the cooperative.

The evidence in this case showed that prior to the effective date of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act (October 24, 1938) the Palmers had operated a business in Puerto Rico known as the Caribbean Embroidery Co. According to the allegations made by the Wage and Hour Division in seeking an injunction, on about the date the act went into effect the so-called cooperative came into existence, pursuant to plans to avoid the requirements of the law for payment of higher wages to employees. The "cooperative," on the other hand, contended that its worker-members were self-employers who owned and controlled the business of the cooperative, and, further, that it was a labor organization exempt from the provisions of the act.

The circuit court ruled that the owner controlled the cooperative and the members, and that they "are working for him." Therefore, an employer-employee relationship existed between the Palmers and the "cooperative," on the one hand, and the members on the other. The court declared that the Fair Labor Standards Act was applicable to the business of this organization as constituted and operated, for Congress in passing the act was dealing with economic realities.

Since the Palmers controlled the business, the court also held that it was not a "labor organization" within the meaning of the act. Because of the view taken by the court in this case, it did not pass upon the contention of the Wage and Hour Division that the act is also applicable to a cooperative which is controlled by its members.

¹ Prepared in cooperation with Division of Labor Standards.

² *Caribbean Embroidery Cooperative, Inc. v. Fleming* (62 Sup. Ct. 942); see also 123 Fed. (2d) 749.

Status of Home Workers Under Wage and Hour Law

Home workers who embroidered samples for an art needlework company were held by a Federal district court to be employees rather than independent contractors.³ Therefore, the Fair Labor Standards Act was held to apply to these employees, as the company was engaged in interstate commerce. This decision is the first judicial determination of the status of home workers under the act.

The company in this case contended that it was not the employer of the home workers within the meaning of the act, as the contracts under which materials were distributed to the home workers specifically stated that the latter were independent contractors. The court, however, ruled that the company had control over the manner in which the work of the home workers was performed, and hence the relationship of master and servant existed. The court added that if it were necessary to do so it would hold that "the word 'employee' as used in the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, includes independent contractors of certain kinds."

In holding that the home workers were employees, the court pointed out that the paramount rule for determining this question is the measure of control or absence of control of an employee or independent contractor. If there is control, the person whose status is in doubt is said to be an employee, and in the absence of such control, the person is declared to be an independent contractor. The court was of the opinion that the company in this case had the control over the home workers, which made them not only employees but "technical servants." It was pointed out that the price for the work and the time of its completion were fixed, and further that the home worker had to comply with all restrictions imposed by the company.

Beauty Shops Subject to Illinois Minimum-Wage Law

The Supreme Court of Illinois has upheld a ruling of the State appellate court,⁴ holding that beauty shops are subject to the State Minimum Fair Wage Standards Act.⁵ An operator in Chicago had contended that the practice of beauty culture is the pursuit of a profession and hence not subject to the act. The lower court held, however, that a person operating a beauty shop is engaged in an "industry, trade or business" within the minimum-wage law and that the practice of beauty culture is not a "profession."

In sustaining the decision of the lower court, the State supreme court pointed out that the minimum-wage law manifests an intent to protect women and minors in their employment against the greed of some employers. The scope of its application, the court said, should not be so limited by construction as to defeat its general purposes. "If the legislature considered that the evils which this act was intended to remedy were present in the general practice of beauty culture," the court further said, "there is no reason why this occupation could not be brought within the act."

³ *Walling v. Buettner*.

⁴ See Monthly Labor Review, August 1941, p. 446.

⁵ *People v. Maggi* (39 NE (2d) 317).

Closed-Shop Referendum Under Wisconsin Law Upheld

The validity of the closed-shop referendum clause of the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act has been indirectly upheld as a result of the refusal of the United States Supreme Court to review a decision of the Wisconsin Supreme Court.⁶ This clause provides that a closed-shop contract may not lawfully be entered into unless three-fourths of the employees vote for such an agreement.

This case resulted from the picketing of a dairy company by a union to compel the employer to grant it a closed shop. Previously, in a referendum conducted by the Wisconsin Employment Relations Board, fewer than three-fourths of the employees voted for such a contract. The Board found that the union had engaged in an unfair labor practice under the law by mass picketing and attempting unlawfully to coerce the employer, and its decision was upheld by the State supreme court.

The court, in sustaining the Board's order forbidding picketing, declared that the order was not repugnant to the free-speech guaranties of the Constitution. The decision stated that picketing is unlawful, even though free from violence, where its object is to enforce demands to which an employer may not lawfully accede. In this case the union had publicly asserted by means of signs and placards that the company was unfair to organized labor, and the court said such assertions were unlawful because they were untrue. "An employer is not 'unfair' when his only act is refusing to do and refraining from doing what the law forbids him from doing."

Federal 8-Hour Law Held to Supersede Wage and Hour Act

A Federal district court recently held that a construction company which is subject to the Federal 8-hour law of 1940 need not also comply with the minimum-wage and maximum-hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.⁷ The Court based its decision on the ground that the 8-hour law is the later law and supersedes the Fair Labor Standards Act. The 8-hour law, which applies to laborers and mechanics employed on Federally financed construction projects, was actually enacted in 1892 and amended in 1912. However, the law was again amended in 1940 to permit work in excess of 8 hours a day provided wages at the rate of time and a half are paid.

In this same decision, the court held that the Fair Labor Standards Act does not apply if the work performed merely "affects" commerce. The company involved in this case was engaged in the construction of dikes and revetments in the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers. This construction aids navigation on the rivers which are necessary instrumentalities of interstate commerce. The court pointed out, however, that the act applies only to employees engaged in interstate commerce or the production of goods for commerce. Therefore, although the employees of the construction company were engaged in work which "affects" commerce, the court held that they were not engaged in interstate commerce within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

⁶ *Milk & Ice Cream Drivers & Dairy Employees Union v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board* (62 Sup. Ct. 1038; see also 299 NW 31).

⁷ *Fleming v. Patton Tully Transportation Co.*

Cost of Living

LIVING COSTS IN LARGE CITIES, APRIL 15, 1942

THE cost of living in large American cities rose 0.7 percent between mid-March and mid-April 1942. This advance brought the Bureau of Labor Statistics' cost-of-living index to a point 115.1 percent of the average 1935-39 level. In mid-April, families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers would have to spend \$1.17 to buy the same things for which they spent \$1 before the outbreak of the war in August 1939.

On May 18 when price-control regulations went into effect, the prices of those goods under the "freezing" order returned to the highest level each one reached in March 1942. About 60 percent of the foods and about 75 percent of all other goods and services purchased by moderate-income families are subject to this control.

Clothing costs showed by far the steepest rise from March to April. They have risen more, in the past 15 months, than any other group of items in the budget of the moderate-income family, reaching a point in April 1942 more than 26 percent above the level of January 1941.

Percentage Changes in Specified Items

Food.—The family food bill rose 0.8 percent between mid-March and mid-April, as retail prices of many foods continued to advance. Increases were larger than normal at this season for fresh pork, fresh fruit, and onions, and substantial increases were also reported for beef, potatoes, and coffee. Fresh milk and certain vegetables such as green beans and carrots were seasonally lower. Exceptionally large supplies of oranges and lettuce resulted in price declines unusual at this season of the year. Fresh-fish prices declined for the first time in 11 months, as larger supplies reached the market, while canned salmon reached a new high level.

By the end of April, preliminary reports indicated further advances for beef, pork, canned salmon, butter, canned tomatoes, and lard.

Clothing.—The large rise in clothing costs between mid-March and mid-April followed steady increases in these costs over the entire past year. Since Pearl Harbor, clothing costs have advanced more than 10 percent. In April there were sharp increases in prices for shoes, men's cotton work clothing and woolen outerclathing, and women's underwear, housedresses, and hose.

Housefurnishings.—The cost of housefurnishings showed a slight rise over the preceding month. Prices of sheets and mattresses, however, continued the relatively rapid climb of past months.

Rent.—Rent increases were moderate. The largest rise reported, 1.2 percent, was in Buffalo, where activity in the war industries has been increasing.

Fuel, electricity, and ice.—Coal prices declined in many cities. In the cities on the northeastern seaboard, fuel-oil prices increased.

Miscellaneous goods and services.—Increases in charges for laundry services and in prices of laundry soap were general. In Chicago, where costs of miscellaneous goods and services advanced more than in any other city (1.1 percent), street-car fares were raised between March 15 and April 15.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Change in Average Prices Paid for Specified Articles of Clothing and Housefurnishings by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities

Item	Percent of change from—		
	Mar. 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1942	Apr. 15, 1941, to Apr. 15, 1942	Sept. 15, 1939, to Apr. 15, 1942
Men's clothing:			
Topcoats.....	+2.7	(1)	+22.0
Suits, wool.....	+2.9	+27.6	+32.1
Work trousers, cotton.....	+2.7	+32.1	+38.6
Overalls, cotton.....	+3.6	+38.0	+50.2
Work shirts, cotton.....	+2.7	+44.5	+52.7
Business shirts.....	+2.0	+26.6	+28.3
Street shoes.....	+1.9	+22.7	+29.2
Work shoes.....	+2.9	+28.3	+33.8
Women's clothing:			
Dress coats, fur-trimmed.....	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sport coats.....	(1)	(1)	(1)
Rayon panties.....	+4.3	+26.8	+26.9
Percale dresses.....	+6.6	+58.4	+67.8
Silk hose.....	+3.1	+31.0	+30.0
Shoes.....	+1.5	+14.3	+14.7
Housefurnishings:			
Living-room suites, inexpensive.....	+6	+29.5	+40.9
Bedroom suites, medium.....	(2)	+19.9	+24.8
Electric refrigerators.....	-.2	+13.7	-3.4
Washing machines.....	+2	+17.7	+21.5
Rugs, Axminster.....	+8	+10.1	+24.2
Mattresses.....	+1.3	+24.2	+27.3
Sheets 64 x 64 construction.....	+1.4	+44.1	+55.0

¹ Data not available.

² No change.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change From March 15, 1942, to April 15, 1942, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items

Area and city	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electric- ity, and ice	House- furnish- ings	Miscel- laneous
Average: Large cities.....	+0.7	¹ +0.8	+2.7	+0.2	² -0.3	+0.3	+0.5
New England: Boston.....	+4	(2)	+2.3	-.1	+1.4	+3	+2
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+8	+7	+2.5	+1.2	-.4	+2	+5
New York.....	+6	+1	+3.6	+1	(2)	+1	+4
Philadelphia.....	⁴ +1.0	⁴ +1.7	+2.3	+3	-1.5	+3	+4
Pittsburgh.....	+1	-1	+6	(2)	(2)	(2)	+4
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	+1.5	+2.1	+4.3	(2)	-.7	+1.5	+1.1
Cincinnati.....	+9	+1.5	+2.7	(2)	-1.4	-.3	+3
Cleveland.....	+8	+1.5	+1.4	+8	-.6	+2	+3
Detroit.....	⁴ +1.0	⁴ +2.0	+2.1	+2	-.4	+7	+4
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+8	+6	+3.0	+3	(2)	+1.5	+5
Minneapolis.....	+4	+6	+1.9	+1	-.3	+6	+2
St. Louis.....	+6	+7	+2.0	+4	-.9	+5	+3
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore.....	+5	+5	+2.1	(2)	-.8	+1	+6
Savannah.....	+1.5	+2.7	+2.5	+1.0	(2)	+1	+4
Washington, D. C.....	+3	-.3	+2.0	(2)	-.8	+2	+3
East South Central: Birming- ham.....	+6	+9	+1.9	+5	-1.6	+3	+2
West South Central: Houston.....	+3	(2)	+1.5	+9	-.1	+2	+2
Mountain: Denver.....	⁴ +1.4	⁴ +2.1	+4.1	+1	(2)	+1.2	+5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+4	+2	+1.8	+2	(2)	+2	+5
San Francisco.....	+1.2	+1.4	+4.1	+6	-.1	+5	+4
Seattle.....	+8	+6	+4.1	+1	+1	+9	+3

¹ Based on data for 51 cities.

² Based on data for 34 cities.

³ No change.

⁴ Indexes for Mar. 15, 1942, revised as follows: Detroit: All items 117.2, food 118.6; Philadelphia: All items 112.7, food 115.5; Denver: All items 113.1, food 117.7.

Indexes of Cost of Goods

Indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers are shown in tables 3 and 4.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, April 15, 1942

[Average 1935-39=100]

Area and city	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	115.1	¹ 119.6	126.9	109.1	² 104.2	121.6	110.6
New England: Boston.....	112.1	115.3	123.0	104.5	111.9	119.0	107.5
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	118.8	122.4	129.2	116.3	103.1	125.9	115.2
New York.....	112.7	116.6	126.7	103.2	103.6	117.3	109.7
Philadelphia.....	113.8	117.5	126.4	106.8	101.9	121.3	109.9
Pittsburgh.....	113.9	117.7	126.5	107.1	106.8	122.4	109.2
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	115.4	120.0	124.6	112.8	102.7	121.3	110.3
Cincinnati.....	115.4	120.7	128.9	104.4	103.1	125.6	110.2
Cleveland.....	117.9	122.3	127.4	117.9	111.3	123.9	109.9
Detroit.....	118.4	121.0	127.3	119.5	106.4	121.4	113.3
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	113.8	117.2	125.2	109.0	105.6	118.6	110.3
Minneapolis.....	114.8	118.0	126.6	109.4	98.5	124.3	113.7
St. Louis.....	115.5	123.8	127.8	106.6	105.3	116.6	108.8
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore.....	117.3	123.6	127.3	113.6	102.7	126.6	109.4
Savannah.....	120.2	128.6	128.7	116.0	106.2	119.9	112.6
Washington, D. C.....	113.8	118.0	133.1	100.6	100.9	129.0	112.0
East South Central: Birmingham.....	118.0	118.9	128.2	131.0	98.5	119.2	110.7
West South Central: Houston.....	115.7	124.6	127.6	108.6	93.8	122.6	109.4
Mountain: Denver.....	114.7	120.2	125.8	109.0	99.3	122.7	110.2
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	117.0	125.2	128.4	109.9	94.2	118.9	111.5
San Francisco.....	117.1	123.6	128.6	106.2	93.2	120.3	114.2
Seattle.....	³ 120.5	127.5	130.3	122.8	100.8	119.7	113.2

¹ Based on 51 cities.

² Based on 34 cities.

³ Preliminary figure.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, by Years, 1935-41; by Months, January 1941-March 1942

[Average 1935-39=100]

Year	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941.....	105.2	105.5	106.5	105.9	102.5	108.2	104.0
Jan. 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
Feb. 15.....	100.8	97.9	100.4	105.1	100.6	100.4	101.9
Mar. 15.....	101.2	98.4	102.1	105.1	100.7	101.6	101.9
Apr. 15.....	102.2	100.6	102.4	105.4	101.0	102.4	102.2
May 15.....	102.9	102.1	102.8	105.7	101.1	103.2	102.5
June 15.....	104.6	105.9	103.3	105.8	101.4	105.3	103.3
July 15.....	105.3	106.7	104.8	106.1	102.3	107.4	103.7
Aug. 15.....	106.2	108.0	106.9	106.3	103.2	108.9	104.0
Sept. 15.....	108.1	110.7	110.8	106.8	103.7	112.0	105.0
Oct. 15.....	109.3	111.6	112.6	107.5	104.0	114.4	106.9
Nov. 15.....	110.2	113.1	113.8	107.8	104.0	115.6	107.4
Dec. 15.....	110.5	113.1	114.8	108.2	104.1	116.8	107.7
1942:							
Jan. 15.....	112.0	116.2	116.1	108.4	104.3	118.2	108.5
Feb. 15.....	112.9	116.8	119.0	108.6	104.4	119.7	109.4
Mar. 15.....	114.3	118.6	123.6	108.9	104.5	121.2	110.1
Apr. 15.....	118.1	119.6	126.9	109.1	104.2	121.6	110.6

LIVING-COST INDEXES FOR WORKERS IN INDUSTRY GROUPS¹

TWO years ago, less than 5 percent of all union agreements in manufacturing industries provided for wage adjustments during the life of the agreement. Today, about 40 percent of such agreements which have a definite duration period provide for reopening of wage negotiations during the term of the agreement. In addition, a number of agreements which have an indefinite duration permit a reopening of the wage issue upon notice of either party. Such indefinite agreements are typical in the iron and steel industry.

In a period of advancing prices, such as the present, one of the most important factors considered when a wage agreement is reopened is the change in the cost of living. Most of the agreements in the shipbuilding industry in force at the present time provide for wage adjustments as the cost of living changes. From one-half to three-fourths of the agreements in the lumber, textile, automobile, and automobile parts industries provide for wage adjustments during the life of the agreement.

In each of these industries, the workers are organized on an industry basis. Although specific wage rates are usually established by plant-wide agreements, changes in general wage levels are often bargained for by a union for the entire industry. As a consequence, there has arisen a need for indexes of living costs which show changes in those costs to workers in a given industry, rather than to all wage earners and lower-salaried workers in a given city or group of cities.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics publishes indexes of living costs of moderate-income families in 34 large cities quarterly, and in 21 of these cities monthly. Since the emergency, it has begun the publication of similar indexes for localities especially affected by war activities, and in a group of small cities. Special studies of rent changes have also been made for many places. Until this year, the only indexes for industry groups released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics have been the indexes for Federal employees in Washington, D. C., published once a year² and estimates of changes in living costs for workers in the automobile industry, made periodically for the use of the unions and employers in that industry. The Federal employees indexes are based on a special study of family expenditures made in 1933, and are weighted according to the spending pattern of three groups of Federal workers living in families, in addition to a group of single individuals. The data on changes in living costs for automobile workers are computed by combining the regular indexes of costs to wage earners and lower-salaried workers in several cities, with weights representative of the number of workers in the automobile industry in each of those cities.

During the early months of 1942, the Bureau made estimates of changes in living costs for several additional industry groups. The period of time for which the changes were shown varied, depending upon the needs of the particular industry. The estimates were made by adjusting already available indexes of costs for wage earners and lower-salaried workers with weights representative of the geographical distribution of workers in the particular industry. In cases where the

¹ Prepared by Frances R. Rice, of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division.

² See pamphlet, Serial No. R. 1254: Changes in Cost of Living, December 15, 1940.

workers involved had incomes appreciably different from those of the average wage earner and clerical worker's family, the weights used to combine the indexes for groups of goods and services were adjusted to represent distribution of expenditures at the income level characteristic of the industry. Data from the cities regularly covered by the Bureau's studies show that changes in rents vary more from city to city than changes in the cost of other goods and services. Wherever rent data for other cities are available, therefore, these have been included in the estimates.

In all cases, the changes shown by these special estimates did not vary greatly from those representative of living costs to the family of the average wage earner and lower-salaried clerical worker. This was true even where the weights for the items included in the index were adjusted to represent family purchases at a different income level.

It may be concluded from these estimates that the index of living costs to wage earners and lower-salaried workers may generally be used to represent changes in living costs for special industry groups and for workers at income levels different from those represented by the family of the average wage earner and lower-salaried clerical worker. Trends in costs, at least, are similar, even though levels of living vary as between income groups.

Results of Special Industry Studies

The results of the special studies of industry groups are shown below.

AUTOMOBILE WORKERS

For several years past, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has estimated, annually, the change in total living costs of automobile workers, combining indexes of changes in living costs of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities in which there is a concentration of automobile workers, with weights representing the number of automobile workers in each of those cities. Changes in living costs in Detroit, necessarily, are most important in determining the movement of this index.

The estimated 1941 index for automobile workers, based on 1935-39 as 100, was 106.2. For Detroit, the index for wage earners and lower-salaried workers, for 1941, on the same base, was 106.6; for the 34 large cities combined, it was 105.2.

PACKING-HOUSE WORKERS

The estimate of the change in living costs from August 1939 to January 1942 for packing-house workers was based on data for cities in which there are large numbers of these workers. Data on changes in rent and food costs for cities in which only those data were available were also used in computing the estimate.

The increase in total living costs for packing-house workers from August 1939 to January 1942 was estimated at 13.9 percent. Over the same period in the large cities of the United States combined, the average increase in total living costs to moderate-income families was 13.6 percent.

STEEL WORKERS

The estimate of changes in the cost of living for steel workers in specified steel centers between August 1939 and December 1941 was based on data on changes in total living costs in steel cities, and on changes in rents in other cities in which there are steel workers. The index of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor was used for Johnstown and data on rent changes in a number of cities in which only those figures were available were included in the estimate. The weights used represented the population of the entire city, since in most cases steel was by far the most important industry in each of the cities included in the estimate.

On this basis the increase in living costs for steel workers between August 1939 and December 1941 was estimated as 13.8 percent, as compared with an increase of 12.1 percent in the large cities of the United States combined. The increases in rental costs in several of the emergency cities, greater than the increase in those costs on the average in the large cities, was responsible for the sharper rise in total living costs estimated for the steel workers.

WORKERS IN SHIPBUILDING AND NAVY YARDS

The agreements within the shipbuilding industry have been negotiated on a regional basis. Accordingly, estimates of changes in living costs to shipbuilding workers and workers in the navy yards were prepared for several regions of the country. The estimates were made by averaging data on changes in living costs in those areas weighted by the number of workers in shipbuilding and in the navy yards in each of the cities.

Between March 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, the increase in living costs to these shipbuilding workers in the North Atlantic area was 13.1 percent; in the Pacific coast area, 13.9 percent; and in the East North Central area, 12.9 percent.

For the purpose of wage negotiations in the Gulf-port cities the Bureau has made estimates of changes in living costs to Gulf-port shipbuilding workers on the basis of a straight average of changes in living costs in the four cities for which total cost-of-living data are available, combined with data on rent changes in four other Gulf-port cities. It was estimated that between March 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, there was an increase of 15.4 percent in living costs to shipbuilding workers in that area.

TEXTILE WORKERS

The estimated change in living costs to northern cotton-textile workers was computed with an adjustment, not only in the weights with which the city indexes were combined, but also with an adjustment in the weights representing family expenditures, in view of the fact that families of textile workers have earnings considerably below those of the average family represented by the Bureau's indexes for wage earners and lower-salaried workers. The estimates are based on all cost-of-living data which the Bureau has collected for the cities in the northeastern region combined, on the basis of the number of

cotton-textile workers in each city. The changes for the subgroups of goods and services were combined according to the estimated distribution of the family expenditures of textile workers in the northern States.

The increase in the living costs of northern cotton-textile workers between August 15, 1939, and March 15, 1942, estimated on this basis, was 17.0 percent. The change in total living costs for wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in all large cities of the country combined over this period was 15.9 percent.

COTTONSEED-OIL WORKERS IN MEMPHIS, TENN.

An index representing changes in living costs to cottonseed-oil workers in Memphis, Tenn., was estimated by combining the Bureau's regular indexes of the various groups of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in Memphis, according to the distribution of family expenditures of a lower-salaried group of Negro workers in that city.

Living costs for this group of Negro workers in Memphis were, thus, estimated to have increased 15.1 percent between September 15, 1939, and March 15, 1942. For all wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in Memphis over this period the increase was found to be 14.3 percent. The heavier weight on food, which has increased more over this period than any other group of items, was the reason for the greater change for the lower-income group.

Wage and Hour Statistics

EARNINGS IN THE MINING MACHINERY AND EQUIPMENT INDUSTRY, 1942 ¹

Summary

THIS survey of earnings in plants manufacturing mining machinery and equipment is the second in the series undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of providing information on the effects of the war on various branches of the machinery industry.

The establishments which constitute this small industry are largely concentrated in the four States of Illinois, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. Four of the 13 plants included in this survey were producing some war materials; during the first 2 months of 1942 a fifth or more of the sales of these companies were made under military or naval contracts.

Employment in the plants studied rose from 2,162 in August 1939 to 3,980 in February-March 1942. During the same period, average hourly earnings increased from 66.6 to 87.8 cents. The length of the workweek in this industry, which averaged 47 hours in February-March 1942, has a pronounced effect on average earnings because of the substantial amounts of penalty overtime payments involved. Elimination of these overtime payments is estimated to reduce the hourly rate for the 13 plants studied by more than 7 cents to an average of 80.6 cents in February-March 1942.

No pronounced regional differences in earnings levels are apparent from the data available, but there are marked variations in earnings between large and small plants. Occupational rates ranged from 52.7 cents per hour for general laborers to \$1.116 for class A working foremen.

Plan of the Survey

This study of earnings in establishments manufacturing mining machinery and equipment is the second in a series included in a broad survey begun in March 1942 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Division of Wage Analysis. The principal purpose of this survey is to provide information on some of the effects of the present emergency upon the industries producing various types of machinery. It is generally known that the transition to a war economy has resulted in profound changes in industrial products, technological processes, occupational patterns, and wage structures, but solution of the many economic and social problems involved requires more precise information on their nature.

¹ Prepared by Harold R. Hosea, with the assistance of Odie C. Clark and George E. Votava, of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis.

The present survey was thus planned to supply a factual basis for measures looking toward the conversion of facilities to the war effort and the necessary restrictions on production for civilian consumption, price-control measures, and wage adjustments. In addition to these immediate objectives, the data also throw light on the specific characteristics of occupational and wage structures in these industries as they have been affected by the impact of the present emergency.²

Each of the industrial branches covered in this series of studies has been defined in terms of the principal products of the various plants during the year 1939. The mining-machinery industry is therefore treated as consisting of the plants which were classified in that branch by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, the latest census available. Important changes in types of product are to be expected, especially because the war program has accentuated the shifts in production that would be expected over a 3-year period. Thus, a group of plants, classified as constituting an industrial branch in 1939, may be far from a homogeneous group at the present time. It is, nevertheless, useful to begin with the 1939 classification as a starting point. The data on changes in types of product within a former industry are, in themselves, highly significant. The few instances in which changes have occurred in the mining-equipment industry are discussed briefly below.

The data for the present survey were collected by trained field representatives of the Bureau who visited the plants and analyzed pay rolls and other pertinent records. The detailed wage data on individual employees are limited to day-shift workers in certain occupational groups selected for their numerical importance or because they are key jobs. In general, however, occupational earnings rates were compiled for 80 to 90 percent of the wage earners on first (daylight) shifts. Most of the earnings data shown in this report are based on a representative pay-roll period during February or March 1942.

According to the latest Census of Manufactures there were 65 plants engaged primarily in the manufacture of mining machinery and equipment; these plants as a group employed an average of 4,940 wage earners during 1939. Eleven of these 65 plants employed fewer than 6 workers each during 1939 and were excluded from this survey. The 13 establishments included in this study thus constitute slightly less than a fourth of those which employed 6 or more workers in 1939. This sample of plants was selected so far as possible to be representative of the industry as a whole with respect to location and corporate affiliation. Because of the small number of plants involved, it was not possible to stratify the sample rigidly on the basis of size of plant in terms of wage earners. An attempt was made, however, to secure representation among the larger and smaller establishments. The 2,162 workers employed in August 1939 by the plants surveyed constitute about 44 percent of the total for the industry as reported for that month by the Census of Manufactures.

Characteristics of the Industry

Geographic distribution.—Approximately two-thirds of the workers employed during 1939 in plants producing mining machinery and equipment were concentrated in four States—Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. Small groups of plants were also reported

² Brief reports on each of the industries studied are released as the material becomes available; Series I, Number 1 on agricultural machinery was issued on April 20, 1942.

for California, Colorado, Iowa, Missouri, and Washington, and a few were scattered elsewhere about the country. The geographic distribution of the plants and wage earners covered by this survey corresponds roughly to that shown by the Census. Only one southern plant is included, hence data for the South are not shown separately.

Type of product.—The establishments classified by the Census in the mining-machinery industry include those "primarily engaged in the manufacture of machinery and equipment for use in mining, including mine hoists, conveyors, ore-crushing and stamping-mill machinery; flotation and concentration machinery; screeners; mining cars and trucks; coal-sawing machinery; coal breakers, etc."

As in the case of the agricultural-machinery industry, the conversion of these plants to war production is not as yet a major factor. It should be noted in this connection that manufacturing plants are likely to be affected in one of three general ways by the transition to a war economy. In the first place, continued or increased output of certain products, of which agricultural machinery and coal-mining equipment are typical, is essential to the war program and must be continued. Companies in these fields may be affected but little except for the possibility of increased production. In the industry under consideration this appears to have been the case in 9 of the 13 plants studied.

In the second place, there are numerous establishments which have been affected by the war principally through a change in customers. Plants manufacturing marine engines, power boilers, trucks, and many other products now supply the military and naval forces rather than civilian purchasers. The changes in technological processes, occupational patterns, and wage structure in such plants are usually minor and frequently negligible. Occupational distributions may be affected somewhat by changes occasioned by military or naval specifications relating to products; in addition, the wage structure is likely to be influenced at least temporarily by changes in the relative importance of certain types of jobs; the levels of earnings reflect the increased amounts of overtime and extra-shift operations. The 4 remaining mining-machinery plants included in this survey fall in this category; during the first 2 months of 1942 a fifth or more of the sales of these companies were made under military or naval contracts. Two of the 13 plants reported some sales of war materials during 1941.

Finally, there are plants in which all or a major part of the facilities are converted for the manufacture of war materials not formerly produced by the establishment. None of the 13 plants surveyed was in this category although slightly more than a third of the February sales of 1 plant involved new war activities.

The labor supply.—Estimates of the distribution of workers in this industry by skill class are based upon the 2,821 workers for whom earnings rates are tabulated. Of the 2,821 workers, approximately 39 percent were working at skilled occupations, 37 percent may be classified as semiskilled, and 24 percent as unskilled. There is no evidence to indicate that inclusion of the remaining workers would greatly affect this estimated distribution.

Four of the 13 plants reported agreements with unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and a similar number with the Congress of Industrial Organizations. The remaining 5 plants were not operating on the basis of union agreements during the period

of the survey, February–March 1942. Union agreements were, in general, more frequently found in the larger plants.

Women were not ordinarily employed by these companies as wage earners. Of the nearly 4,000 workers employed, only 20 (exclusive of central-office employees) were women, and they were working in 3 plants, principally as small-parts assemblers. Three plants employed a total of 146 Negroes who constituted 5, 6, and 11 percent, respectively, of the wage earners in these establishments. Their work was largely that of casting cleaners, shake-out men, cupola tenders, and janitors.

Methods of wage payment.—Incentive methods of wage payment were in effect in only 3 of the 13 plants surveyed. These were, as might be expected, the larger establishments. Of the 2,821 wage earners for whom earnings rates were compiled, 825 were paid on the basis of an incentive system.

All 13 plants studied paid time and one-half for all work over 40 hours per week and 8 also paid this rate for any work above 8 hours per day. One plant paid this rate for any work on Saturday afternoon and 3 more applied it to all work on Sundays and holidays. One plant paid double time for Sunday and holiday work.

Only 2 of the plants surveyed made any provision for shift differentials. One of these paid an additional 5 percent for night work, and the other added 5 cents to the hourly rate for employees other than those whose work was done regularly during the night shift. Detailed data on shift operations were not compiled in connection with this survey, but it appears that the volume of evening- and night-shift employment was not large.

Employment, Hours, and Hourly Earnings, 1939–42

Employment in the 13 plants included in this survey increased by nearly 85 percent between August 1939 and February–March 1942, when a total of 3,980 wage earners were employed. The transition to war production, which was in process in 4 of the plants surveyed, seems not to have had any marked effect on employment except in 1 establishment, which more than doubled its workers between August 1941 and March 1942. Changes in the other 3 plants were negligible, although 2 of them showed very small decreases.

Average hourly earnings rose from 66.6 cents in August 1939 to 87.8 cents during the period of the present survey (table 1). Each of the intervals for which data were compiled show increases except the period April–August 1940.

Weekly hours in these mining-machinery plants appear to have been relatively long since early in 1940. Hours in the plants as a group amounted to 44.6 per week as far back as August 1940, and had climbed almost to 50 a year later. The 4 plants producing some war materials have maintained a somewhat longer workweek than have the other 9 plants surveyed. These 4 plants, as a group, showed an average of 53.0 hours per week during August 1941 and of 51.4 hours in February and March 1942.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Average Hourly Earnings, and Average Weekly Hours of Workers in 13 Mining-Machinery Plants for Selected Periods, 1939-42*

Year and month	Total workers	Average workers per plant	Average hourly earnings	Estimated average hourly earnings (exclusive of overtime)	Average weekly hours
August 1939.....	2,162	166	\$0.666	\$0.656	37.5
April 1940.....	2,426	187	.670	.643	41.9
August 1940.....	2,661	205	.663	.621	44.6
February 1941.....	2,871	221	.683	.631	46.2
August 1941.....	3,559	274	.752	.677	49.5
February and March 1942.....	3,980	306	.878	.806	47.0

The comparatively long workweek among these plants is, of course, reflected in the extent to which average hourly earnings rates are inflated by penalty overtime payments. It is estimated on the basis of data from previous studies that the elimination of such payments would reduce the August 1941 average by about 7.5 cents; during the period of the present survey, estimated net average hourly earnings amounted to 80.6 cents as compared with 87.8 cents when penalty overtime payments are included (table 1).

Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours, February-March 1942

PLANT AVERAGES

Approximately half (6) of the plants surveyed showed current average hourly earnings (including penalty overtime) between 70 and 90 cents. In only 1 establishment did the workers earn an average of less than 50 cents per hour. In 3 plants the averages were between 90 cents and \$1.00 per hour, and all 3 employed more than 50 workers. None of the plants with 50 workers or less showed average earnings above 80 cents per hour.

The 132 workers employed in plants with fewer than 50 employees earned an average of 69.9 cents per hour, but the greater part of the wage earners, who were employed in the 9 larger establishments, averaged 88.4 cents per hour.

The data on earnings reveal no clear-cut regional differences. As is indicated above, the majority of the plants are in Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia, but the variations in earnings between individual plants are sufficient to overshadow any State or regional differences.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

Fifteen of the occupational groups for which detailed data were collected showed average earnings above \$1.00 per hour. These groups included 522 workers or about 19 percent of the total for whom rates were compiled. The 34 class A working foremen, whose earnings averaged \$1.116 per hour, constituted the highest paid group. Except for these supervisory employees, tool and die makers received the highest rate (\$1.087); the earnings of class A turret-lathe operators (\$1.075) were about a cent lower. The earnings data presented in table 2 exclude penalty overtime payments.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Day-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in Mining-Machinery Plants, February–March 1942

Occupation and class	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Occupation and class	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
<i>Males</i>			<i>Males—Continued</i>		
Acetylene-burner operators.....	10	\$0.857	Lay-out men.....	32	\$0.995
Apprentices, first year.....	32	.419	Learners.....	50	.606
Apprentices, second year.....	13	.486	Machinists.....	39	.912
Apprentices, third year.....	8	.544	Metal-saw operators.....	13	.845
Apprentices, fourth year.....	4	(1)	Milling-machine operators, class A.....	18	(1)
Assemblers, bench, class A.....	85	1.049	Milling-machine operators, class B.....	21	.807
Assemblers, bench, class B.....	61	.872	Millwrights.....	48	1.017
Assemblers, bench, class C.....	49	.728	Molders, bench.....	22	1.011
Assemblers, floor, class A.....	55	1.057	Molders, floor.....	96	.932
Assemblers, floor, class B.....	43	.776	Molders' helpers.....	54	.664
Assemblers, floor, class C.....	53	.543	Molders, machine, class A.....	10	.983
Blacksmiths.....	25	.925	Molders, machine, class B.....	4	(1)
Boring-mill operators, class A.....	29	1.006	Packers.....	5	(1)
Boring-mill operators, class B.....	16	.605	Painters, brush.....	3	(1)
Boring-mill operators, class C.....	1	(1)	Painters, dip.....	1	(1)
Broaching-machine operators.....	9	.976	Painters, spray.....	10	.752
Bulldozer operators.....	10	.638	Patternmakers, wood.....	37	1.045
Burrers, class C.....	3	(1)	Pipe fitters.....	3	(1)
Carpenters, class A.....	5	.858	Planer operators.....	22	.911
Carpenters, class C.....	8	.620	Power shear operators.....	17	.821
Carpenters, flask.....	4	.790	Punch-press operators, class A.....	1	(1)
Casting cleaners.....	29	.676	Punch-press operators, class B.....	29	.919
Chippers, class B.....	5	.645	Punch-press operators, class C.....	9	.718
Chippers, class C.....	15	.586	Repairmen, machine.....	16	.770
Coremakers.....	44	.897	Repairmen, product, class A.....	2	(1)
Core pasters.....	3	(1)	Repairmen, product, class B.....	2	(1)
Coremakers' helpers.....	10	.636	Riveters, pneumatic.....	33	.787
Crane followers.....	5	(1)	Sandblasters.....	4	(1)
Crane operators.....	30	.737	Sand mixers, hand.....	3	(1)
Cupola tenders.....	16	.747	Sand mixers, machine.....	4	(1)
Cupola tenders' helpers.....	9	.624	Screw-machine operators, class A.....	1	(1)
Drill-press operators, class A.....	37	.994	Screw-machine operators, class B.....	1	(1)
Drill-press operators, class B.....	32	.778	Screw-machine operators, class C.....	1	(1)
Drill-press operators, class C.....	11	.581	Shake-out men.....	34	.672
Drop-hammer operators, class A.....	20	(1)	Shaper operators.....	9	.927
Drop-hammer operators, class B.....	8	(1)	Sheet-metal workers, class A.....	14	.919
Electricians.....	34	.861	Sheet-metal workers, class B.....	3	(1)
Elevator operators.....	1	(1)	Stock clerks.....	148	.719
Firemen, stationary boiler.....	15	.706	Straighteners.....	6	.896
Flask and pattern carriers.....	3	.630	Testers, class B.....	3	(1)
Foremen, working, class A.....	34	1.116	Testers, class C.....	1	(1)
Foremen, working, class B.....	14	.822	Thread-milling-machine operators.....	5	.849
Foremen, working, class C.....	4	(1)	Time clerks.....	3	(1)
Gear cutters, class A.....	7	1.037	Tool and die makers.....	41	1.087
Gear cutters, class B.....	11	.776	Tool-grinder operators.....	3	(1)
Gear finishers.....	5	.941	Truck drivers.....	20	.711
Grinding-machine operators, class A.....	18	1.015	Truckers, hand.....	16	.684
Grinding-machine operators, class B.....	28	.730	Truckers, power, inside.....	20	(1)
Hammersmiths.....	1	(1)	Tumbler operators.....	2	(1)
Heat treaters, class A.....	19	.888	Upsetters.....	2	(1)
Heat treaters, class B.....	11	(1)	Watchmen.....	36	.623
Helpers, journeymen's.....	125	.677	Welders, hand, class A.....	43	.995
Helpers, machine operators'.....	67	.528	Welders, hand, class B.....	25	.764
Inspectors, class A.....	30	1.032	Welders, machine, class A.....	24	.997
Inspectors, class B.....	35	.806	Welders, machine, class B.....	42	.845
Inspectors, class C.....	38	.699	Winders, class A.....	12	(1)
Janitors.....	47	.644	Winders, class B.....	4	(1)
Job setters.....	1	(1)	Woodworkers.....	24	.785
Laborers.....	118	.527			
Laborers, foundry.....	64	.562			
Ladle liners.....	3	.703			
Lathe operators, engine, class A.....	57	1.023			
Lathe operators, engine, class B.....	30	.756			
Lathe operators, turret, class A.....	27	1.075			
Lathe operators, turret, class B.....	7	.792			
Lathe operators, turret, class C.....	2	(1)			
			<i>Females</i>		
			Assemblers, bench, class B.....	10	.426
			Assemblers, bench, class C.....	1	(1)
			Janitresses.....	3	(1)
			Power shear operators.....	1	(1)
			Stock clerks.....	2	(1)

¹ Number of plants and/or workers too small to justify computation of an average; data on numbers of workers are included in such cases to provide additional information on occupational distribution.

With the exception of apprentices, only six occupational groups made up of male workers showed average hourly earnings below 60 cents. The laborers, general and foundry, were numerically the most important of the lower-paid groups; their hourly averages were 52.7 and 56.2 cents, respectively. As indicated above, no regional analysis of these data is practicable, and the number of plants is too small to justify an analysis of the effect of size of plant on occupational rates.

The separate rates shown for different classes of workers within an occupational group are based upon an attempt in each case to determine the nature of the workers' duties in terms of the degree and type of skill required and the amount of responsibility attached to the jobs. Although earnings rates are naturally correlated with these grade classifications, these rates have not been used as the principal basis for determining the classification. The criteria for judging skill classes have been applied uniformly among the various plants studied, as far as it is possible to do so. A turret-lathe operator, for example, was reported as a class B worker if his current job conformed to the general criteria established for this class; the fact that one such operator in a high-wage plant might receive 15 cents per hour more than an employee doing a similar grade of work in a lower-wage plant was not taken into consideration.

The number of women employed in these plants was too small to warrant the presentation of earnings averages for more than the one occupational group—bench assemblers, class B. These averaged 42.6 cents. The remaining 7 women were employed as janitresses, stock clerks, and 1 power-shear operator; as a group they received an average of 71.8 cents per hour.

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN MINING AND MILLING OF NONFERROUS METALS, AUGUST 1941¹

Summary

THE 26,205 workers surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the nonferrous-metal mining and milling industry earned on the average, exclusive of penalty overtime payments, 74.5 cents per hour in August 1941. Including penalty overtime payments they averaged 78.2 cents per hour. Earnings varied substantially among the several branches of the industry: workers in the mercury branch earned 61.2 cents per hour while in other minor nonferrous mines and mills the average without overtime was as much as 77.4 cents per hour. Copper mines and mills, which accounted for the largest proportion of the workers in the industry, provided average hourly earnings of 72.8 cents per hour, and workers in lead and zinc mines and mills, the next largest group, earned 76.6 cents.

The distribution of earnings of individual workers exhibited a marked concentration in the 10-cent range from 72.5 to 82.5 cents per hour. Somewhat over one-third of the workers (34.3 percent) had such earnings. Although 2 percent of the workers in the mining and milling industry as a whole earned less than 40 cents per hour, 3.2 percent earned \$1.10 or more per hour.

Considerable variation in earnings also prevailed on a regional basis. Average hourly earnings in the West, for example, amounted to 77.2 cents per hour, whereas in Michigan workers earned on the average only 47.9 cents per hour. In the East, earnings were only about 1 cent below the western average, or 76.3 cents, while in the Tri-State District² the average was 71.4 cents.

Although mines and mills have adjusted their standard hours of work considerably in recent years, in accordance with the requirements of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the actual weekly hours of many workers at the time of the Bureau's survey exceeded 40 per week. In the West, for example, nearly a third of the workers in mines and three-fourths of those in mills worked 48 or more hours per week. In the other regions, too, actual hours of work of over 40 were quite prevalent.

Scope and Method of Survey

This survey of wages and hours of work in the mining and milling of nonferrous metals is part of a broader survey of the nonferrous-metals industry which covered all stages of production through primary fabrication. The survey was initiated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the summer of 1941, when war considerations brought to the fore the increased production of these vital metals.

From the standpoint either of production volume or of extent of consumption in our modern economy, copper, lead, and zinc are the most important nonferrous metals. The production and fabrication of these metals into castings, sheets, rods, tubes, extrusions, and

¹ Prepared in the Division of Wage Analysis by Harry Ober and Jacob Loft, with the assistance of Abner C. Lakenan.

² Jasper and Newton Counties in Missouri; Cherokee County in Kansas; and Ottawa County in Oklahoma.

forgings therefore constitute the most important part of the nonferrous metal survey. Such minor metals as mercury, molybdenum, tungsten, and manganese also received consideration, but the mining of bauxite and its reduction into alumina and aluminum were not included.

The survey of the nonferrous-metal mining industry was made on the basis of a stratified sample covering about one-half of the establishments in copper, lead, and zinc, and mercury mining and milling, and about one-half of the workers. In order to assure the representativeness of the mines and mills included in the sample, careful consideration was given to size of the establishment, type of metal produced, geographic location, and corporate affiliation. Mines and mills employing fewer than 20 workers, however, were not covered. These smaller plants, which employ but a small proportion of the workers in the industry, were not considered suitable for inclusion with the larger establishments because of the narrowness of their occupational pattern and the instability of their operation. The data for the survey were collected from actual pay rolls by trained field representatives of the Bureau for a period in August 1941. The information obtained includes detailed records of hours worked, total earnings, and occupational descriptions, as well as the sex and color of each employee.

Characteristics of Industry

Copper, lead, and zinc are extensively used in the electrical and communications industries, in the manufacture of protective coatings for wood and metal and as alloys in the manufacture of a variety of metals to meet the specific requirements of modern industry. Of the 1,070,000 short tons of copper consumed in the United States in 1940, nearly half were used for electrical purposes. Copper is also used extensively in alloy form with other metals. In combination with zinc it forms brass, which is vitally important in the manufacture of ammunition and other implements of war. Lead is used extensively in the manufacture of storage batteries and cable covering; such uses accounted for about two-fifths of our total pre-war consumption of this metal. Zinc, which is commonly associated with lead in its natural state, is extensively used in the form of protective galvanized coatings for iron and steel, in the manufacture of paints, and as an alloy with copper in the production of brass. Galvanizing and brass making accounted for seven-tenths of the zinc consumption in the United States in 1940.

STAGES OF PRODUCTION

Three distinct technical sequences in the production and fabrication of nonferrous metals were covered in the Bureau's survey: (1) Mining and ore dressing, (2) the smelting and refining of ore and scrap, and (3) primary fabrication. The extraction of ores, the subject of the present article, has been treated in combination with the milling (or dressing) of the ores, since the latter operation is usually performed near the mine site to avoid the uneconomic costs of shipping untreated ores. The second stage consists of the smelting and refining of concentrated ore at points more conveniently located with respect to the markets for the metals, the sources of fuel and power, and

transportation facilities. Most smelters are part of highly integrated firms which engage in all stages of manufacture, from the extraction of the ore to the manufacture of consumers' goods. Other smelters (so-called "custom" plants) treat ores from mines under independent ownership. At the smelting and refining plants the metals in various stages of purity are processed into a variety of commercial shapes, such as pigs, ingots, bars, cakes, slabs, anodes, and cathodes. Refineries also process considerable quantities of scrap in addition to virgin metal. After smelting and refining, the metals, in convenient forms, move to the third stage in the production sequence. At this stage they are alloyed and processed into castings, sheets, rods, tubes, wire, foil, forgings, and extrusions.

For the purposes of this survey, "mining" is considered to apply mainly to the operations involved in the actual extraction of ore and the necessary preparatory work in the stopes. Concurrently with this activity, however, mining establishments frequently engage in prospecting, exploration, and development, and it is impossible to dissociate the labor engaged in the latter operations from mining proper. Mines in which exploration, development, and prospecting were the sole or primary activities were not studied. Prospecting is a term generally applied to the search for and discovery of ore bodies at the surface. Exploration refers to the search for new ore bodies and extension of known ore bodies. Development involves those preparatory mining operations leading to the extraction of ore.

Milling, concentration, or ore dressing is the process of preparing the crude ore for more economical transportation and further processing. This involves the removal of much of the waste material from the mass of ore, and the separation of the various constituents of the ore so that in each kind of ore only one valuable metal predominates. These processes involve sorting the bulk or ground ore by mechanical methods or by hand, and the direct recovery of the metal by amalgamation and leaching.

IMPORTANCE OF THE INDUSTRY

The mining of nonferrous metals does not furnish employment to any large proportion of the workers in the United States. The industry is, however, fairly concentrated on a regional basis and in such regions as the Tri-State District, the Idaho area, and other western mining regions, it provides an important source of employment and income for many communities.

Preliminary Census reports for 1939 contain data for mines and mills which reported a value of product or cost of development work amounting to at least \$2,500. The average number of wage earners reported by the Census for mines and mills producing copper, lead, zinc, mercury, tungsten, and molybdenum ores was about 42,000 in 1939. Of this number, 24,000 were employed in the extraction and primary treatment of copper ore, 15,000 in lead and zinc ore production, 700 in tungsten, 600 in mercury, and 900 in molybdenum. Since 1939, of course, employment in mining has increased considerably as a result of increased requirements of the war program.

From 1909 to 1939 the number of mines engaged in copper, lead, and zinc production was drastically reduced. In the earlier year there were 368 active copper mines as contrasted with 49 in 1939. Over the same three decades the number of lead and zinc mines recorded by the

Census declined by nearly four-fifths. In part, this decline is the result of changes in reporting; prior to 1919 the Census excluded only those mines whose product was valued at less than \$500 per year, while after 1919 mines reporting a value of product of less than \$2,500 were excluded. In part, however, the reduction in number reflects the exhaustion of some mines and the abandonment of others with low-grade ore. Wide variation in the number of active mines from period to period results from changes in the prices of metal. To some extent, too, the reduction in the number of mines reflects the tendency toward consolidation of small working units into large mine units, a tendency which is still operating.

Employment in the mining industry is subject to wide cyclical fluctuations. From 1909 to 1939 the average number of wage earners in copper mining and milling declined by over half, with the major portion of the decline occurring in the decade following 1929. The working force in lead and zinc mining rose by about half from 1909 to 1929, but during the decade following 1929 it fell below the 1909 level.

Employment in mining over these three decades declined more sharply than the output or the value of the total product. Mechanization of mining, as well as the development of new methods of production, contributed considerably toward the reduction of labor requirements. The outstanding developments in mining during these years include improved methods of mine lay-out, improved drills and blasting practices, improved transportation and hoisting facilities, the introduction of mechanical loading, and the discovery of new methods of stopping (such as square setting and block caving). Important, too, were improvements made in the mills in the methods of treating low-grade ores—especially the flotation process which made possible the treatment of tailings formerly discarded, as well as the mining of low-grade ore bodies.

LOCATION OF THE INDUSTRY

The major copper-producing areas are Michigan, the Southwestern States of Arizona and New Mexico, the California, Nevada and Utah area, and the Northwestern States of Idaho, Montana, and Washington. Important shifts in production occurred in these regions from 1909 to 1939. Thus, Michigan, which produced about one-fifth of the total copper in 1909 in terms of value of the product, contributed only 7 percent of the total output in 1939. The relative share of Idaho, Montana, and Washington also dropped, during this period, from over a third to only a sixth of the total. By way of contrast, the combined share of California, Nevada, and Utah rose from one-sixth to over one-third between 1909 and 1939, and Arizona and New Mexico's proportion of the total output rose from one-fourth to over one-third.

Census figures for lead and zinc extraction show concentration in two main regions: The Mississippi Valley, with principal concentration within the Tri-State District (Jasper and Newton Counties, Mo., Cherokee County, Kans., and Ottawa County, Okla.); and the West, consisting of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Washington.

Less than 1 percent of the total value of lead and zinc was produced by mines of the western region in 1909, whereas, in the same year, the lead and zinc produced in the Mississippi Valley accounted for over four-fifths of the total value. The proportion of the total output

produced in the latter region declined in succeeding years to somewhat over two-fifths of the total in 1939, while the value of the lead and zinc products of the western region rose during the same period to two-fifths of the total.

Table 1 and the chart (p. 1383) indicate the regional distribution of the mines and mills included in the Bureau's survey.

TABLE 1.—*Sample of Nonferrous-Metal Mines and Mills Covered by Bureau's Survey*

Branch and region ¹	Number of units	Workers		Branch and region ¹	Number of units	Workers	
		Number	Percent			Number	Percent
All regions.....	160	26,205	100.0	Lead and zinc mines.....	54	9,232	35.2
Copper mines ²	22	10,083	38.5	West.....	18	5,459	20.8
Northwest.....	8	4,116	15.7	Tri-State.....	32	2,854	10.9
Southwest.....	11	4,584	17.5	East.....	4	919	3.5
Michigan.....	3	1,383	5.3	Lead and zinc mills.....	37	2,833	10.8
Copper mills.....	14	2,275	8.7	Northwest.....	5	1,031	3.9
Northwest.....	3	651	2.5	Southwest.....	9	524	2.0
Southwest.....	9	1,452	5.5	Tri-State.....	19	957	3.7
Michigan.....	2	172	.7	East.....	4	321	1.2
				Mercury mining.....	16	444	1.7
				Other mining.....	9	912	3.5
				Other milling.....	8	426	1.6

¹ For States included in the various regions, see footnotes to tables 6, 7, and 8.

² Includes 3 open-cut mines.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LABOR FORCE

The labor force for the mining and milling of nonferrous metals is composed exclusively of males. The plants are found mainly in small communities, and draw a substantial proportion of their workers from agriculture. At present considerable numbers are also recruited from the service industries and from marginal manufacturing establishments.

Mining generally involves hard labor and unpleasant conditions of work. It requires much knowledge and skill of the miner, and less skill but more industry on the part of the mucker. Considerable knowledge is also required to perform a number of other operations, such as the care and operation of hoisting equipment, and provisions for safety, drainage, and ventilation. In addition, maintenance of transportation facilities, tools, and machines requires experience and skill. Most of the mines visited by the Bureau's representatives reported anticipated or actual shortages of skilled miners and muckers. Upgrading of muckers and of miners' helpers to miners was one method resorted to by operators to cope with this situation. New employees hired were taken on mainly as miners' helpers and muckers.

The working force consists mainly of white workers, but substantial proportions of Mexican labor are found in the Southwest. Some Negroes are also employed in various regions, but their number is comparatively insignificant. The proportions of the different types of workers in the mines and mills studied by the Bureau are indicated in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Composition of Labor Force in Nonferrous-Metal Mining and Milling, August 1941*

Branch	White other than Mexican		Mexican		Negro		Other	
	Work-ers	Per-cent	Work-ers	Per-cent	Work-ers	Per-cent	Work-ers	Per-cent
Mining, total.....	18,586	80.9	1,842	8.9	38	0.2	206	1.0
Copper.....	8,429	83.6	1,465	14.5	3	(1)	186	1.8
Lead and zinc.....	8,892	96.3	286	3.1	35	.4	19	.2
Mercury.....	418	94.1	26	5.9				
Other.....	847	92.9	65	7.1				
Milling, total.....	4,954	80.5	526	9.5	5	.1	49	.9
Copper.....	1,727	76.0	496	21.8	3	(1)	49	2.2
Lead and zinc.....	2,804	99.0	27	1.0	2	(1)		
Other.....	423	99.3	3	.7				

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

EXTENT OF UNIONIZATION

Unionization was found to be relatively extensive in the Western States, whereas in the Tri-State District few workers were found in unions. Information obtained on extent of unionization indicates that in the nonferrous-metal mining industry as a whole somewhat less than half of the workers belong to unions. The majority of these are members of the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers, a C. I. O. affiliate, which is the principal union in the metal-mining field. A small proportion of the workers belong to A. F. of L. unions.

Forty-four percent of the workers in the nonferrous mines and mills included in the Bureau's survey were covered under union agreements. Table 3 presents the percentages covered by agreements in the various regions.

Table 3.—*Unionization in Nonferrous-Metal Mines and Mills, August 1941*

Region ¹	All workers		Workers in union mines or mills		Workers in non-union mines or mills	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All regions.....	26,205	100.0	11,528	44.0	14,677	56.0
West.....	19,599	100.0	9,739	49.7	9,860	50.3
Tri-State.....	3,811	100.0	278	7.3	3,533	92.7
Michigan.....	1,555	100.0	763	49.1	792	50.9
East.....	1,240	100.0	748	60.3	492	39.7

¹ For States included in the various regions, see footnote to table 6.

METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENT

Three methods of wage payment are prevalent in the industry: Time rates, piece rates, and base rates plus bonus. The character-

istic time rate in the metal-mining industry is the day rate. Payment by the day has been the traditional mode in metal mining and still remains so despite the fact that the operation of Federal wage and hour regulations has made it necessary to calculate hourly earnings.

Piece workers are considered to include those employees who receive payment on the basis of some unit of output and whose earnings vary in direct proportion with the number of units produced. The unit may be the ton, the can, or some other measure, depending upon the specific work involved. Frequently, only certain employees, such as miners, muckers, and can hookers, are paid at piece rates.

Variants of the bonus method of wage payment are to be found in the mining of nonferrous metals. Frequently, the bonuses are calculated for the output of groups of workers, including drilling-machine operators, muckers, timbermen, and others, on a so-called "contract" basis. In such instances, one worker heads the group and acts as the "contractor." Each member of the group is guaranteed a minimum daily rate and the total earnings of the group are divided between the participants on some previously determined basis. The group may work on a piece-rate basis, and frequently may receive an additional bonus for production in excess of a set standard or "score." Nominally, the contract workers assume certain responsibilities and share certain benefits of an independent entrepreneur; they are charged for the use of the stope, powder, fuses, caps, and machinery provided by the management. In calculating the bonus earnings these charges, as well as the guaranteed daily rates, are deducted from the gross earnings. Actually, however, these various arrangements are little more than formalities. The worker enters into them as a condition of employment and has little say in the determination of the standards of output, the various charges made by management, or the conditions of work. His major concern is that his total earnings, whatever the arrangement, approximate the daily rates prevalent for comparable work.

Although it is common practice in these contractual arrangements to provide somewhat higher earnings than for comparable work on a daily rate basis, especially when development work is involved, upper limits are frequently set to the total amount that each worker may earn. In some cases, earnings in excess of a given amount are shared by the workers and the management on a predetermined percentage basis up to an absolute limit, above which all earnings are retained by the firm.

Although the objective of all such methods is to provide an incentive for diligence and hard work, they do not always lead to the most efficient methods of production, since in many instances the organization of the work is left to the contracting group, which is not in a position to attain the efficiency resulting from a high degree of division of labor. However, where development work is involved, in order to make the stope ready for extraction, the efficiency of workers under these contractual arrangements appears to be relatively high. Earnings in such cases are considerably higher than on regular stoping.

In general, bonus workers encountered in the Bureau's survey were classified as such when they were employed on a piece rate which did not vary directly with the number of units produced, either because of a guaranteed minimum wage or because of an upper limit to total

earnings. Workers were also classified as bonus workers when they had a time rate and a set standard of output, with additional earnings for output above the set standard.

Of the 20,671 workers in nonferrous-metal mining covered by the Bureau's survey, 81.1 percent were paid at straight time rates (table 4). The remaining workers were paid on a basis more or less closely related to output; they were fairly evenly divided between those who received bonuses (9.4 percent) and those who were paid by the piece (9.5 percent). The proportions of time, piece, and bonus workers in copper mining paralleled closely those in nonferrous-metal mining as a whole. The proportion of piece and bonus workers combined (20.7 percent) in lead and zinc mining was slightly in excess of the corresponding proportion in copper mining.

In contrast with nonferrous-metal mining, almost all workers (98.6 percent) in nonferrous-metal milling covered by the survey were paid on a time basis. Only 0.6 and 0.8 percent of the workers in nonferrous-metal milling were piece and bonus workers, respectively. In copper milling, almost all workers (99.7 percent) were paid time rates. Similarly, 97.6 percent of the wage earners in lead and zinc milling were time workers.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Workers in Nonferrous-Metal Mines and Mills, by Method of Wage Payment and Branch, August 1941*

Branch	All workers		Time workers		Piece workers		Bonus workers	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
Mining, total.....	20,671	100.0	16,766	81.1	1,956	9.5	1,949	9.4
Copper.....	10,083	100.0	8,171	81.0	959	9.5	953	9.5
Lead and zinc.....	9,232	100.0	7,312	79.3	929	10.0	991	10.7
Mercury.....	444	100.0	444	100.0				
Other.....	912	100.0	839	92.0	68	7.5	5	.5
Milling, total.....	5,534	100.0	5,460	98.6	31	.6	43	.8
Copper.....	2,275	100.0	2,269	99.7			6	.3
Lead and zinc.....	2,833	100.0	2,765	97.6	31	1.1	37	1.3
Other.....	426	100.0	426	100.0				

"SLIDING SCALE" OF WAGES

It is conventional practice in metal mining to adjust the earnings of workers in accordance with the movements of market prices of specific metals. This method has been developed by employers over a long period of time, has generally been accepted by the unions, and is widely prevalent in negotiated wage agreements. The sliding scale provides a rough means of adjusting wages to the various phases of the business cycle. The automatic adjustment of production costs in response to changing metal prices tends to stabilize company earnings and may contribute somewhat toward regularity of employment. In view of the wide divergence between the movements of metal prices and those in the cost of living, however, it is apparent that the sliding scale falls short of assuring a stable "real" income for the worker.

MEASUREMENT OF WORKING TIME

Practices with respect to recording time worked vary considerably in this industry. The vast majority of the mines have "collar to collar" arrangements, under which the working day typically begins at the time the miner enters the gate and ends when he is brought up to the surface from the individual working face. There is considerable variation in the interpretation of phrase "collar to collar," however. Some mines count only the trip to the mine as time worked while others count trips both ways. Some mines calculate time worked from the moment the miner enters the mine site, whereas others begin at the mine shaft. The trips from collar to working face consume anywhere from 5 to 30 minutes one way. There are some mines, however, which consider as time worked only the actual time spent at the working face. Because of these variations in practice it was necessary for purposes of the Bureau's survey to adopt a uniform procedure, and the typical "collar to collar" basis of recording time, mentioned above, was adopted. In mines where no "collar to collar" practice prevailed, the time consumed in traveling from the surface to the working face and back was added to the total hours recorded.

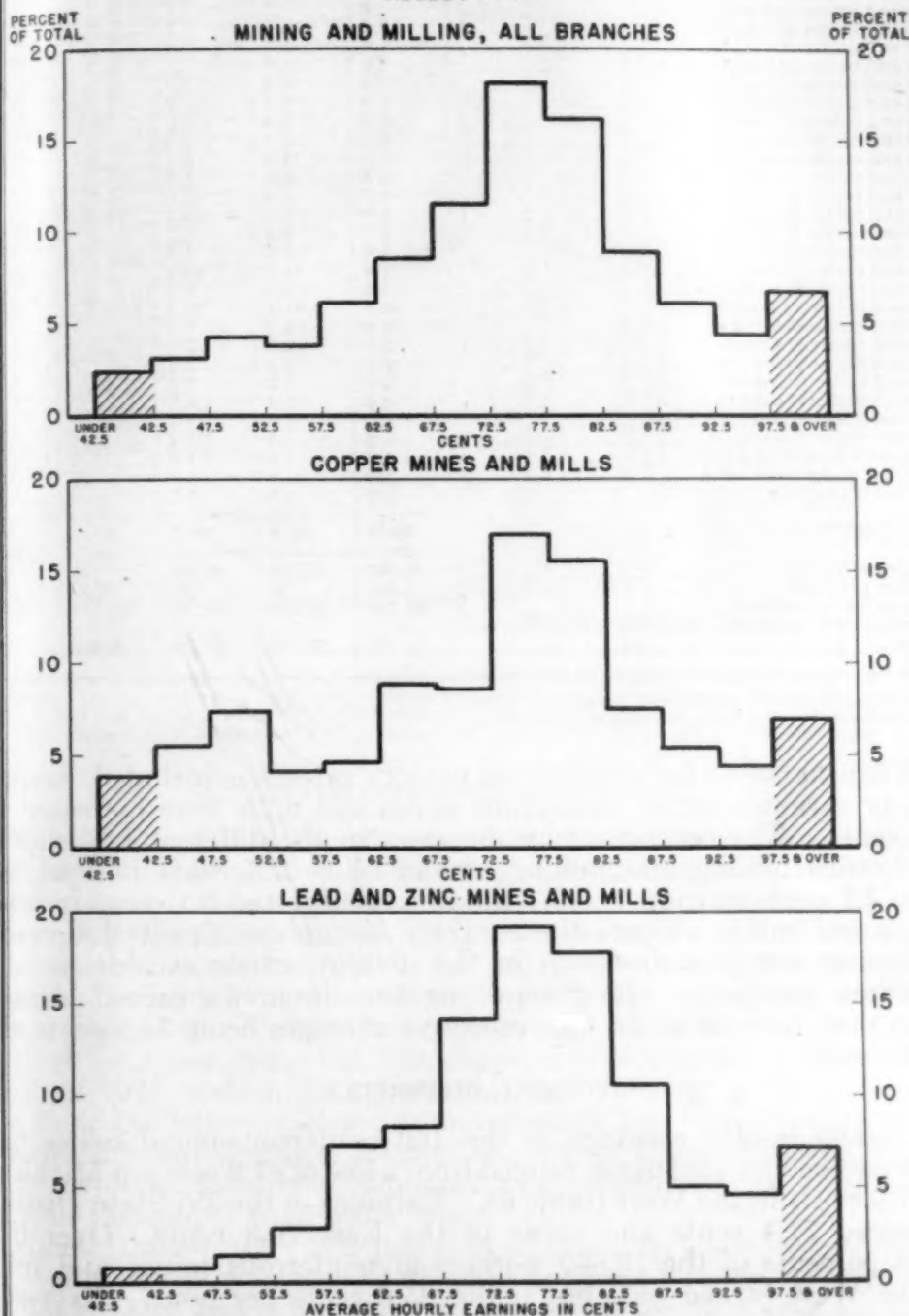
It is customary practice in the mining industry to schedule no regular lunch period. In such instances the miners are reported to "eat on the job." Some mines, however, do provide for a regular lunch period during which all work ceases and the workers are not "subject to call." In all cases where workers were reported to be eating on the job, the hours reported were considered as time worked and no deductions were made for time spent at lunch.

Hourly Earnings

In the 160 nonferrous-metal mines and mills covered by the survey, hourly earnings, excluding overtime, averaged 74.5 cents. Well over half (55.7 percent) of the workers earned 65.0 but under 85.0 cents per hour (table 5 and chart). Average hourly earnings in lead and zinc mines and mills were 76.6 cents, with 61.8 percent of the workers earning 67.5 but under 87.5 cents per hour. Workers in copper mines and mills earned an average of 72.8 cents per hour. In this branch of nonferrous-metal extraction there was a concentration of 51.3 percent of the workers who earned 65.0 but under 85.0 cents per hour. Average hourly earnings in mercury mines amounted to 61.2 cents, with 53.6 percent of the workers earning 55.0 but under 75.0 cents per hour; another 13.2 percent earned under 40.0 cents per hour. In other nonferrous mines and mills (including manganese, molybdenum, and tungsten), average hourly earnings were 77.4 cents, somewhat in excess of those in the nonferrous branches mentioned earlier; 62.9 percent of these workers earned 70.0 but under 90.0 cents per hour.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS IN NONFERROUS METAL MINING AND MILLING

BY AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS,
EXCLUDING OVERTIME, AND BY BRANCH
AUGUST 1941



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 5.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in Branches of Nonferrous-Metal Mining and Milling, by Average Hourly Earnings (Excluding Overtime), August 1941

Average hourly earnings	Total	Copper mines and mills	Lead and zinc mines and mills	Mercury mines	Other mines and mills ¹
Under 40.0 cents	2.0	3.2	0.6	13.2	0.5
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	.4	.7	.1	2.0	.1
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	2.0	3.8	.3	2.3	.2
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	1.1	1.7	.4	5.2	.2
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	1.0	1.6	.5	1.1	.3
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	3.3	5.9	.9	1.4	2.2
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	1.5	1.8	.9	1.6	2.6
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	2.3	2.3	2.0	10.3	1.9
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	3.1	1.7	4.3	3.4	5.3
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	3.0	2.9	3.1	9.0	1.3
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	4.5	3.6	5.8	7.7	.5
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	4.0	5.3	2.6	9.7	2.8
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	6.8	3.5	10.1	3.8	8.6
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	4.7	5.1	4.1	7.0	5.0
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	5.6	3.0	8.8	2.7	1.0
75.0 and under 77.5 cents	12.6	14.0	10.4	7.4	23.4
77.5 and under 80.0 cents	5.4	4.5	6.6	3.8	3.1
80.0 and under 82.5 cents	10.7	11.1	11.2	3.4	4.1
82.5 and under 85.0 cents	5.9	4.8	7.1	.7	7.0
85.0 and under 87.5 cents	2.9	2.7	3.5	.9	.7
87.5 and under 90.0 cents	3.5	3.2	2.4	.5	18.6
90.0 and under 92.5 cents	2.4	2.2	2.6	-----	1.9
92.5 and under 95.0 cents	2.4	1.4	3.3	-----	4.3
95.0 and under 97.5 cents	2.0	3.0	1.3	-----	.4
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	.9	.8	1.1	.7	-----
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.1	1.9
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	1.0	.9	1.3	.2	.2
110.0 cents and over	3.2	3.5	3.1	.9	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	26,205	12,358	12,065	444	1,338
Number of units ²	160	36	91	16	17
Average hourly earnings	\$0.745	\$0.728	\$0.766	\$0.612	\$0.774
Average hourly earnings, including punitive over- time	\$0.782	\$0.775	\$0.789	\$0.667	\$0.835

¹ Manganese, molybdenum, and tungsten.² Total of mines and mills, not of establishments.

When payment for overtime at penalty rates was included, average hourly earnings for all nonferrous mines and mills were increased by 3.7 cents. The corresponding increases in the different branches of nonferrous mining and milling amounted to 2.3 cents in lead and zinc, 4.7 cents in copper, 5.5 cents in mercury, and 6.1 cents in other mines and mills. Where the contrary is not specifically designated all hourly earnings discussed in the present article exclude penalty overtime payments. In general, workers in mines earned slightly more than those in mills, the respective averages being 75.5 cents and 71.3 cents.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

Average hourly earnings in the 160 nonferrous-metal mines and mills covered by the survey ranged from a low of 47.9 cents in Michigan to 77.2 cents in the West (table 6). Earnings in the Tri-State District averaged 71.4 cents and those in the East 76.3 cents. Over half (52.8 percent) of the 19,599 workers in nonferrous mines and mills in the West earned 65.0 but under 85.0 cents per hour. Sixty-two percent of the workers in the Tri-State District earned 55.0 but under 75.0 cents per hour. Over one-quarter (25.2 percent) of the 1,555 workers in Michigan earned less than 40.0 cents per hour and an additional 64.3 percent earned under 60.0 cents. More than two-fifths (44.5 percent) of the workers in the East earned 65.0 but under 85.0 cents per hour.

TABLE 6.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in Nonferrous-Metal Mines and Mills, by Average Hourly Earnings (Excluding Overtime) and by Region,¹ August 1941

Average hourly earnings	United States	West	Tri-State District	Michigan	East
Under 40.0 cents	2.0	0.5	1.2	25.2	0.3
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	.4	.1	.3	5.3	.1
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	2.0	1.1	.8	17.5	.2
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	1.1	.7	.8	8.0	.2
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	1.0	.2	1.3	11.6	
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	3.3	3.6	1.6	5.1	1.9
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	1.5	1.0	1.9	5.7	2.7
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	2.3	1.4	5.2	7.0	2.1
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	3.1	1.9	6.1	4.1	11.5
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	3.0	2.1	6.8	2.3	6.2
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	4.5	2.6	14.9	2.7	4.5
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	4.0	3.9	6.0	.6	4.0
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	6.8	5.8	14.6	1.1	4.5
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	4.7	5.4	2.9	1.2	2.3
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	5.6	6.0	5.5	.4	5.4
75.0 and under 77.5 cents	12.6	15.4	3.4	.6	13.6
77.5 and under 80.0 cents	5.4	6.5	2.6	.3	2.8
80.0 and under 82.5 cents	10.7	13.6	2.3	.6	1.7
82.5 and under 85.0 cents	5.9	6.2	5.0	.1	10.2
85.0 and under 87.5 cents	2.9	3.5	1.4		2.3
87.5 and under 90.0 cents	3.6	4.1	2.3		4.2
90.0 and under 92.5 cents	2.4	2.7	1.6	.1	2.7
92.5 and under 95.0 cents	2.4	2.6	1.9	.4	3.0
95.0 and under 97.5 cents	2.0	2.4	1.0		2.7
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	.9	.8	1.2	.1	2.5
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	1.7	1.7	1.5		3.5
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	1.0	.9	1.5		3.0
110.0 and over	3.2	3.3	4.4		1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	26,205	19,599	3,811	1,555	1,240
Number of units	160	96	51	5	8
Average hourly earnings	\$0.745	\$0.772	\$0.714	\$0.479	\$0.763
Average hourly earnings (including punitive overtime)	.782	.812	.745	.500	.782

¹ West includes Nevada, Washington, Montana, Arizona, New Mexico, California, Colorado, Idaho, Arkansas, Oregon, Texas, and Utah; copper mines and mills in North Carolina and Tennessee are included with the Western States in order to avoid disclosure of individual operations. Tri-State District includes Missouri, Kansas, and Oklahoma. East includes New Jersey, New York, and parts of Tennessee.

EARNINGS BY TYPE OF PRODUCT

Copper mines and mills.—Average hourly earnings in western copper mines and mills amounted to 76.4 cents, as compared with a corresponding figure of 47.9 cents in Michigan (table 7). In connection with the low wage levels prevailing in Michigan copper mines, it is of interest to note that Michigan copper is derived from vein and replacement ores, whereas low-grade disseminated ore bodies are characteristic of western sources. Many of the operations in Michigan have been worked for years and, with the copper prices prevailing throughout much of 1941, were probably submarginal. Partly in recognition of this fact, the Office of Price Administration has recently established a price differential which permits the sale of some Michigan copper at 17 cents per pound, as compared with a basic limit of 12 cents for most of the copper from other areas.

Almost three-fifths (58.2 percent) of the workers in copper mines and mills in the West earned 65.0 but under 85.0 cents per hour. In Michigan, 89.5 percent of the workers earned less than 60.0 cents per hour, and 25.2 percent earned under 40.0 cents per hour.

TABLE 7.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in Copper Mines and Mills, by Average Hourly Earnings (Excluding Overtime) and by Region,¹ August 1941

Average hourly earnings	All mines and mills	West				Michi- gan mines and mills	
		Total	Northwest		Southwest		
			Mines	Mills	Mines		Mills
Under 40.0 cents	3.2	(²)				0.1	25.2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	.7	(²)	(²)	0.2	0.1		5.3
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	3.8	1.8			3.3	2.8	17.5
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	1.7	.8			.9	3.2	8.0
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	1.6	.1	(²)		.2	.2	11.6
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	5.9	6.0			9.0	16.5	5.1
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	1.8	1.3			.9	6.7	5.7
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	2.3	1.7	0.1	.5	2.6	3.6	7.0
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	1.7	1.4	(²)		1.5	5.3	4.1
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	2.9	3.0	.1		5.3	5.3	2.3
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	3.6	3.7	2.6	5.4	3.9	5.6	2.7
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	5.3	6.0	3.4	3.5	6.9	11.3	.6
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	3.5	3.8	4.5	2.9	4.0	1.7	1.1
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	5.1	5.7	2.3	5.5	9.3	4.3	1.2
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	3.0	3.4	1.7	1.2	3.7	8.4	.4
75.0 and under 77.5 cents	14.0	16.1	35.4	4.3	4.4	3.4	.6
77.5 and under 80.0 cents	4.5	5.1	3.9	2.3	7.2	3.0	.3
80.0 and under 82.5 cents	11.1	12.7	10.3	25.9	16.0	3.0	.6
82.5 and under 85.0 cents	4.8	5.4	7.5	11.5	4.2	.8	.1
85.0 and under 87.5 cents	2.7	3.0	4.4	4.3	2.0	1.9	
87.5 and under 90.0 cents	3.2	3.7	1.2	1.7	4.9	7.7	
90.0 and under 92.5 cents	2.2	2.5	3.8	4.0	1.4	1.6	
92.5 and under 95.0 cents	1.4	1.5	2.1	3.2	1.0	.7	.4
95.0 and under 97.5 cents	3.0	3.4	4.2	16.9	1.6	.5	
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	.8	.9	1.5	1.1	.6	.2	.1
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	1.8	2.0	2.7	4.5	1.3	1.1	
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	.9	1.0	1.4	.8	.9	.3	
110.0 cents and over	3.5	4.0	6.9	.3	2.9	.8	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	12,358	10,803	4,116	651	4,584	1,452	1,555
Number of units	36	31	8	3	11	9	5
Average hourly earnings	\$0.728	\$0.764	\$0.835	\$0.832	\$0.731	\$0.661	\$0.479
Average hourly earnings (including punitive overtime)	.775	.814	.875	.899	.785	.713	.500

¹ Northwest region includes Nevada, Washington, and Montana. Southwest region includes Arizona and New Mexico; Tennessee and North Carolina included to avoid disclosure of information for individual plants.

² Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

In the two constituent segments of the West, average hourly earnings in copper mining were 83.5 cents (Northwest) and 73.1 cents (Southwest). The corresponding figures for copper milling were 83.2 cents and 66.1 cents, respectively. These figures are consistent with other data appearing in this article which indicate that wages in the Northwest are higher than in any other area of importance in the industry.

Lead and zinc mines and mills.—In western lead and zinc mining and milling, average straight-time hourly earnings were 79.6 cents (table 8). Over three-quarters (78.4 percent) of the wage earners in this region received 67.5 but under 87.5 cents per hour.

In lead and zinc mining, average hourly earnings ranged from a low of 72.4 cents in the Tri-State District to a high of 81.2 cents in the West. In milling, average hourly earnings ranged from 68.2 cents in the Tri-State District to 73.2 cents in the East and 74.7 cents in the West.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in Lead and Zinc Mines and Mills, by Average Hourly Earnings (Excluding Overtime) and by Region,¹ August 1941

Average hourly earnings	All mines and mills	West			Tri-State District		East	
		Total	Mines	Mills	Mines	Mills	Mines	Mills
Under 40.0 cents	0.6	0.4	0.2	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.3	0.3
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	.1	(?)	(?)		.4	.2		.3
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	.3	(?)	(?)	.1	1.0		.3	
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	.4	.2	.1	.7	.8	.6	.2	.3
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	.5	.1	.1	.2	1.7	.1		
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	.9	.4	.2	.8	1.7	1.4	1.6	2.5
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	.9	.1	(?)	.5	1.9	1.7	2.4	3.4
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	2.0	.2	.1	.6	5.0	6.1	1.2	4.7
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	4.3	2.1	2.5	.8	4.1	12.3	13.6	5.3
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	3.1	.5	.4	.7	7.7	4.1	5.9	7.2
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	5.8	1.0	.8	1.7	15.9	11.8	3.7	6.9
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	2.6	.5	.6	.1	5.4	7.5	4.6	2.5
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	10.1	8.5	1.7	32.6	11.3	24.4	4.2	5.3
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	4.1	5.0	3.9	9.1	2.8	3.2	2.1	2.8
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	8.8	11.2	12.8	5.5	5.7	4.9	5.7	4.7
75.0 and under 77.5 cents	10.4	13.7	15.6	7.1	3.3	3.9	7.2	32.1
77.5 and under 80.0 cents	6.6	9.4	7.2	17.1	2.4	3.2	3.4	1.2
80.0 and under 82.5 cents	11.2	18.1	22.2	3.4	1.8	3.8	2.3	
82.5 and under 85.0 cents	7.1	7.7	8.1	6.2	6.1	1.6	11.8	5.6
85.0 and under 87.5 cents	3.5	4.8	5.6	1.9	1.5	1.0	2.7	1.2
87.5 and under 90.0 cents	2.4	2.1	2.3	1.4	2.7	1.4	4.9	2.2
90.0 and under 92.5 cents	2.6	3.2	3.4	2.4	1.9	.6	3.3	1.2
92.5 and under 95.0 cents	3.3	4.0	4.9	1.0	2.0	1.8	3.0	2.8
95.0 and under 97.5 cents	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.2	.2	3.0	1.6
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	1.1	.8	1.0	.2	1.4	.5	2.5	2.5
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.9	.3	3.9	2.2
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	1.3	.9	.9	1.0	1.9	.4	3.9	.3
110.0 and over	3.1	2.5	2.7	1.8	5.4	1.6	2.3	.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	12,065	7,014	5,459	1,555	2,854	957	919	321
Number of units	91	32	18	14	32	19	4	4
Average hourly earnings	\$0.766	\$0.796	\$0.812	\$0.747	\$0.724	\$0.682	\$0.774	\$0.732
Average hourly earnings (including punitive overtime)	.789	.816	.825	.787	.756	.712	.792	.752

¹ West includes Idaho, Montana, Washington, Colorado, New Mexico, Nevada, Utah. Tri-State District includes Oklahoma, Missouri, and Kansas. East includes New Jersey, New York, and Tennessee.

² Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

There are two distinct occupational patterns in nonferrous-metal mining, each of which is determined by the nature of the processes involved. The primary operations consist of preparation of the stopes, shafts, haulageways, cross-cuts, chutes, and hoists; extraction of the ore from the stopes by drilling and blasting; loading the ore into cars, cans, or chutes; transportation of the ore to main hoists; and hoisting of the ore to the surface. Depending upon the size of the mine, the degree of division of labor, and such management practices as method of wage payment, each of these operations may be performed as a specialized task or in combination with others. Thus, miners are primarily engaged in drilling and blasting in some mines, while in others they may also do mucking and timbering. In addition to these operations there is a whole series of auxiliary operations relating to ventilation and safety, maintenance of equipment and tools, and the installation and repair of drainage. Also associated with mines are such professional persons as assayers, chemists, and engineers.

Mills are highly mechanized establishments geared to handling large bodies of ore. Most of the handling operations which involve hauling ore into the mill and interprocesses transportation are done by conveyors and chutes. The processes of crushing, grinding, screening, jig-separating, flotation, filtering, and drying are all machine operations performed by machine operators and helpers. Highly skilled technicians are in charge of the milling process as a whole. Standard sampling tests are performed by unskilled or semiskilled employees under the guidance of technicians. Since the processes involved in milling constitute for the most part distinct and separate mechanical operations, the division of labor in the mills is more highly developed than in the mines, and specialized occupations generally prevail.

Copper mines.—Of 10,083 workers employed in all copper mines surveyed (see table 9) almost one-quarter (24.1 percent) were drilling-machine operators. The large proportion of men employed at the working face of the mine, using pneumatic or electric drills, is characteristic of the high degree of division of labor prevalent in the extraction processes in copper mines. Drilling-machine operators are relatively highly paid. In the Northwest they earned an average of 94.8 cents per hour; in the Southwest they averaged 83.9 cents per hour; in Michigan they earned 54.9 cents per hour. Regional comparisons of average weekly earnings for drilling-machine operators, as well as other occupations, must necessarily be modified by differences in weekly hours.

TABLE 9.—Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Copper Mines, by Occupation ¹ and by Region, August 1941

Occupation	Northwest				Southwest				Michigan			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	4, 116	\$0.835	40.0	\$34.98	4, 584	\$0.731	45.3	\$35.56	1, 383	\$0.491	43.1	\$22.15
Blacksmiths.....	36	.834	50.6	46.59	39	.801	47.2	40.56	22	.459	44.3	21.33
Blacksmiths' helpers.....	21	.751	47.8	38.84	31	.669	47.5	34.40	25	.399	43.2	17.92
Boilermakers.....	14	.865	51.0	50.02	28	.839	49.3	45.62				
Cagers' helpers.....	34	.746	40.9	30.89	8	(2)	(2)	(2)	6	(2)	(2)	(2)
Cagers, inside.....	62	.798	40.4	32.97	25	.831	43.0	38.12	7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Carpenters.....	47	.898	47.7	46.17	59	.834	47.5	42.95	14	.467	43.4	21.02
Change-house men.....	16	.674	43.0	29.98	28	.556	42.6	25.04	11	.385	40.4	15.82
Clerical workers:												
Plant.....	41	.924	41.2	38.94	42	.896	42.9	39.35	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Office.....	27	.861	43.2	38.56	48	.873	43.3	38.86	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Common laborers.....	194	.691	40.0	29.19	451	.505	45.9	24.89	45	.478	43.4	21.46
Compressor men.....	13	.869	45.5	43.06	19	.733	47.6	37.68	10	.422	46.9	21.09
Drilling-machine operators.....	1, 274	.948	38.7	38.08	743	.839	44.0	39.74	408	.549	43.5	25.04
Helpers.....	10	.795	39.0	32.53	78	.652	46.4	32.52	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Electricians.....	51	.881	50.2	48.43	66	.831	47.8	43.39	21	.443	40.5	18.52
Firemen, railroad.....	25	.805	37.6	32.05	37	.695	46.6	34.94	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Foremen and assistants, working.....	83	.956	48.6	50.36	174	.840	47.1	42.42	42	.602	46.2	29.10
Hoistmen, surface.....	56	.854	46.8	42.99	56	.784	46.9	39.78	25	.441	46.1	21.70
Hoistmen, underground.....	28	.874	39.5	36.23	17	.744	47.6	39.24	6	(2)	(2)	(2)
Laborers, maintenance.....	31	.686	39.2	27.18	110	.494	46.9	24.99				
Loading-machine operators.....	11	.804	48.4	44.02	150	.791	43.3	36.90				
Maintenance helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	52	.765	47.2	39.55	191	.637	46.5	32.09	18	.438	43.1	19.65

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 9.—*Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Copper Mines, by Occupation¹ and by Region, August 1941—Continued*

Occupation	Northwest				Southwest				Michigan			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
Mechanics.....	51	\$0.878	48.6	\$46.52	88	\$0.808	48.6	\$42.91	15	\$0.443	47.4	\$22.51
Miscellaneous maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	38	.881	49.7	48.50	147	.746	46.8	37.68	11	.425	45.2	20.71
Miscellaneous workers.....	143	.753	42.5	33.78	334	.702	44.3	33.17	15	.350	40.6	14.33
Motormen.....	233	.768	36.8	28.98	143	.806	44.9	38.80	24	.503	46.3	24.90
Helpers.....	228	.754	36.5	28.09	186	.699	45.9	34.70				
Muckers.....	148	.724	45.8	36.20	290	.680	42.8	31.17	338	.469	42.1	20.69
Nippers.....	73	.741	38.0	29.24	22	.615	45.2	30.11	14	.498	45.7	24.30
Oilers.....	17	.719	43.4	32.81	25	.691	47.4	35.38	10	.382	43.9	17.34
Pipe fitters.....	65	.828	41.3	35.50	32	.775	47.4	39.98	5	(?)	(?)	(?)
Helpers.....	11	.759	48.5	40.43	27	.663	46.4	33.30	1	(?)	(?)	(?)
Powdermen (blasting).....	24	.837	17.8	44.61	92	.726	45.2	35.21				
Power and transportation workers.....	39	.889	40.2	37.96	87	.775	47.9	40.34	16	.440	44.6	20.69
Powerhouse operators' helpers.....	10	.798	46.4	39.68	21	.681	51.5	38.64	9	(?)	(?)	(?)
Pumpmen.....	42	.822	45.3	39.40	29	.572	48.2	35.30	27	.442	40.9	18.34
Repairmen, mine and surface.....	181	.794	31.8	25.58	6	(?)	(?)	(?)	3	(?)	(?)	(?)
Roustabouts.....	32	.751	32.2	25.11	62	.564	45.2	27.40	1	(?)	(?)	(?)
Samplers, ore.....	30	.787	45.7	48.79	9	(?)	(?)	36.15	4	(?)	(?)	(?)
Shovel operators.....	10	1.058	42.4	48.12	45	1.031	46.0	51.12				
Storekeepers (powder).....	31	.766	40.8	32.33	15	.726	44.9	34.66	1	(?)	(?)	(?)
Technicians and supervisory workers.....	15	.872	45.2	41.76	35	1.050	42.2	45.46	1	(?)	(?)	(?)
Timbermen.....	408	.761	35.4	27.21	262	.834	44.0	39.41	121	.473	44.4	22.18
Timekeepers.....	23	.948	41.7	40.31	23	.850	42.8	37.90	4	(?)	(?)	(?)
Trackmen.....	87	.718	41.3	30.81	29	.729	45.1	35.24	14	.448	43.4	20.21
Trammers.....					72	.610	44.4	28.96	70	.461	36.8	16.97
Truck and tractor operators.....	22	.821	47.4	42.11	47	.764	46.1	38.09	6	(?)	(?)	(?)
Watchmen.....	29	.658	41.4	28.11	56	.614	48.4	32.36	2	(?)	(?)	(?)

¹ Note inclusion of clerical workers, office.² Too few workers to show average.

Muckers, constituting a large unskilled occupational group in copper mining, earned an average of 72.4 cents per hour in the Northwest. In the Southwest they earned 68.0 cents per hour, and the corresponding figure in Michigan was 46.9 cents per hour.

Motormen earned an average of 76.8 cents in the Northwest, 80.6 cents in the Southwest, and 50.3 cents in Michigan.

Working foremen and their assistants received average hourly earnings of 95.6 cents in the Northwest, 84.0 cents in the Southwest, and 60.2 cents in Michigan.

Copper mills.—General helpers in the copper mills of the Northwest earned an average of 75.2 cents per hour (table 10). In the Southwest, where the majority of workers in this occupational classification were employed, average hourly earnings for the occupation were 54.9 cents. Flotation operators in the Northwest earned an hourly average of 81.3 cents, and in the Southwest, 70.0 cents. Ball-mill operators in northwestern copper mills earned an average of 80.2 cents per hour; in the Southwest, corresponding earnings were 65.9 cents.

TABLE 10.—Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Copper Mills, by Occupation¹ and by Region,² August 1941

Occupation	Northwest				Southwest			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	651	\$0.832	46.9	\$42.13	1,452	\$0.661	46.9	\$33.41
Ball-mill operators.....	25	.802	46.9	40.84	33	.659	46.1	33.09
Carpenters.....	23	.896	47.6	45.80	62	.862	47.3	43.92
Clerical workers.....	30	.912	47.4	46.61	57	.822	45.0	38.52
Crusher operators.....	23	.782	43.1	36.41	41	.662	48.0	34.35
Electricians.....	13	.918	42.3	41.63	28	.896	45.3	43.31
Flotation operators.....	30	.813	46.4	40.95	82	.700	47.1	35.20
Foremen, working.....	22	.978	49.1	50.47	41	.851	50.1	46.72
Foremen, assistant, working.....	21	.955	47.6	48.73	41	.745	47.4	38.34
General helpers, mill.....	77	.752	45.9	37.63	217	.549	46.1	27.29
Laborers, maintenance.....	25	.750	43.8	35.47	69	.517	48.3	27.15
Maintenance helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	63	.779	46.5	39.27	148	.601	44.6	28.64
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	89	.931	47.4	47.57	105	.700	47.7	36.25
Mechanics.....	17	.906	47.8	46.49	40	.795	49.6	43.30
Miscellaneous workers, not elsewhere classified.....	79	.837	47.5	43.07	203	.683	46.4	34.11
Oilers and greasers.....	17	.793	48.0	41.41	47	.594	46.9	30.42
Ore handlers.....	15	.781	49.6	42.57	66	.562	50.5	31.39
Plant-protection and custodial workers.....	32	.665	46.8	33.10	46	.556	46.0	27.39
Repairmen.....	18	.830	45.3	40.93	56	.675	49.1	36.58
Samplers.....	21	.777	48.8	41.39	50	.625	46.1	31.04
Truck drivers.....	11	.826	51.2	47.19	20	.712	46.1	34.51

¹ Note inclusion of clerical workers.² Michigan not shown in order to avoid disclosure of information for individual plants.

Lead and zinc mines.—Of 9,232 workers in lead and zinc mines covered by the survey, almost one-quarter (23.6 percent), as in copper mining, were drilling-machine operators (table 11). In the West, they earned 85.3 cents per hour; in the Tri-State District, 84.4 cents; and in the East, 92.1 cents.

Muckers in lead and zinc mines earned an hourly average of 74.4 cents in the West, 66.5 cents in the Tri-State District, and 65.1 cents in the East. Trammers in the same regions earned 75.8 cents, 63.0 cents, and 68.8 cents per hour, respectively.

Timbermen in lead and zinc mines earned an hourly average of 81.8 cents in the West and 83.6 cents in the East.

Average hourly earnings for common labor in lead and zinc mines ranged from 57.5 cents in the East to 61.3 cents in the Tri-State District and 70.3 cents in the West.

TABLE 11.—Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Lead and Zinc Mines, by Occupation¹ and by Region, August 1941

Occupation	West				Tri-State District				East			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	5,459	\$0.812	39.1	\$32.27	2,854	\$0.724	42.5	\$32.11	919	\$0.774	40.7	\$32.23
Blacksmiths.....	59	.858	42.9	38.14	34	.728	45.1	34.91	14	.820	41.5	35.43
Helpers.....	33	.763	43.9	34.98	12	.621	43.5	28.01	3	(²)	(²)	(²)
Cagers.....	74	.820	39.7	33.04	62	.745	44.2	34.73	17	.722	41.8	31.21
Helpers.....	22	.758	39.4	29.89	10	.841	39.3	33.10	2	(²)	(²)	(²)
Carpenters.....	31	.865	43.7	40.09	15	.798	42.1	35.07	12	.740	44.7	34.59
Change-house men.....	39	.673	38.1	26.14	7	(²)	(²)	(²)	12	.638	39.2	25.11
Clerical workers:												
Office.....	43	.981	39.9	39.16	35	.844	39.6	33.78	16	.813	40.6	33.26
Plant.....	42	.983	41.0	40.62	17	.741	40.4	30.08	16	.791	40.8	32.66
Common laborers.....	137	.703	39.9	28.51	52	.613	42.0	27.23	27	.575	41.6	24.88
Compressor operators.....	36	.793	43.4	35.75	18	.694	48.1	36.20	6	(²)	(²)	(²)
Drilling-machine operators.....	1,451	.853	37.9	32.60	530	.844	42.1	36.72	198	.921	40.9	38.68
Helpers.....	34	.737	42.4	32.87	288	.639	43.0	29.12	33	.817	35.9	29.39
Electricians.....	58	.880	43.7	40.72	12	.821	45.5	39.54	8	(²)	(²)	(²)
Foremen and assistants, working, maintenance.....	105	.987	43.0	43.80	43	.770	46.3	37.62	24	.911	46.2	42.51
Hoistmen, surface.....	151	.835	41.7	35.95	66	.729	46.0	35.85	22	.689	41.6	29.66
Hoistmen, underground.....	47	.821	41.8	35.57	98	.661	45.1	31.91	9	(²)	(²)	(²)
Loading-machine operators.....	73	.825	42.8	36.80	85	.943	42.4	41.02	35	.717	46.3	35.63
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	74	.834	43.7	38.21	25	.732	43.6	33.40	16	.845	39.4	33.58
Maintenance workers' helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	173	.717	41.3	30.75	51	.582	40.1	24.29	47	.710	40.1	28.79
Mechanics.....	80	.879	42.7	39.72	58	.813	41.0	34.18	24	.759	45.5	36.40
Miscellaneous workers, mine, not elsewhere classified.....	100	.803	42.2	34.98	246	.683	42.2	29.96	53	.759	41.2	32.11
Motormen.....	210	.795	40.1	32.22	75	.878	41.3	36.83	25	.721	38.9	28.47
Helpers.....	88	.755	39.0	29.69	55	.639	45.2	31.00	9	(²)	(²)	(²)
Muckers.....	944	.744	37.2	27.81	543	.665	41.4	28.93	107	.651	37.4	24.46
Nippers.....	40	.766	40.5	31.24	3	(²)	(²)	(²)	2	(²)	(²)	(²)
Pipe fitters.....	28	.807	40.2	32.81	14	.742	44.0	34.19	2	(²)	(²)	(²)
Pumpmen.....	50	.841	44.2	39.33	27	.671	45.0	31.77	9	(²)	(²)	(²)
Repairmen, maintenance.....	49	.857	41.2	36.41	11	.806	42.0	34.72	2	(²)	(²)	(²)
Repairmen, mine.....	75	.918	40.2	37.22	6	(²)	(²)	(²)	13	.832	39.8	33.10
Roustabouts.....	57	.748	39.6	29.83	93	.688	41.0	28.98	11	.572	39.4	22.95
Technicians.....	37	1.009	42.3	43.30	10	.974	40.0	38.95	6	(²)	(²)	(²)
Timbermen.....	579	.818	37.3	30.73	---	---	---	---	79	.836	40.0	33.56
Timbermen's helpers.....	186	.794	37.5	29.87	---	---	---	---	5	(²)	(²)	(²)
Tool and powder store-room men.....	32	.807	39.8	32.64	5	(²)	(²)	(²)	7	(²)	(²)	(²)
Trackmen.....	41	.753	39.6	30.00	109	.747	42.2	32.77	10	.684	40.7	28.56
Trammers.....	94	.758	40.0	30.86	55	.630	46.1	30.98	28	.688	40.6	28.70
Truck and tractor operators.....	29	.813	41.4	34.79	44	.588	42.4	26.04	7	(²)	(²)	(²)
Watchmen.....	64	.722	40.3	29.37	40	.561	38.7	22.13	3	(²)	(²)	(²)

¹ Note inclusion of clerical workers, office.² Too few workers to show average.

Lead and zinc mills.—Ball-mill operators in lead and zinc mills covered by the survey earned an average of 69.4 cents per hour in the West, 72.9 cents in the Tri-State District, and 70.1 cents in the East (table 12). Average hourly earnings for crusher operators ranged from 63.1 cents in the Tri-State District to 71.5 cents in the West.

Ore handlers in western mills earned an average of 68.1 cents per hour; in eastern mills, 63.5 cents; and in the Tri-State District, 59.2 cents. General mill helpers received average hourly earnings of 60.2 cents in the East, 61.8 cents in the Tri-State District, and 69.3 cents in the West.

TABLE 12.—Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Lead and Zinc Milling, by Occupation¹ and by Region, August 1941

Occupation	West				Tri-State District				East			
	Num- ber of work- ers	Aver- age hour- ly earn- ings	Aver- age week- ly hours	Aver- age total week- ly earn- ings	Num- ber of work- ers	Aver- age hour- ly earn- ings	Aver- age week- ly hours	Aver- age total week- ly earn- ings	Num- ber of work- ers	Aver- age hour- ly earn- ings	Aver- age week- ly hours	Aver- age total week- ly earn- ings
All occupations.....	1,555	\$0.747	44.0	\$34.61	957	\$0.682	42.9	\$30.54	321	\$0.732	42.4	\$31.91
Ball-mill operators.....	72	.694	43.7	32.07	14	.729	43.4	34.24	22	.701	45.8	34.24
Carpenters.....	35	.851	44.5	40.21	25	.783	37.6	29.90	8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Clerical workers:												
Office.....	29	.857	41.6	36.23	19	.676	39.9	27.08	18	.763	40.2	30.80
Plant.....	30	1.023	40.8	42.05	10	.733	42.2	31.68	4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Crusher operators.....	42	.715	42.8	31.88	36	.631	44.8	29.80	11	.681	43.3	30.54
Electricians.....	12	.855	39.0	35.18	15	.817	45.5	38.80	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Flotation operators.....	126	.774	43.8	35.50	64	.698	43.1	31.17	13	.750	45.3	36.42
Foremen and assistant foremen, working.....	48	.889	45.5	42.61	27	.860	49.6	45.09	20	.890	44.3	39.72
General mill helpers.....	232	.693	41.7	30.06	100	.618	42.9	27.89	34	.602	43.7	27.51
Jig operators.....	47	.703	46.0	34.44	184	.680	42.6	30.05	32	.726	41.3	30.66
Laborers, mill.....	44	.650	47.1	33.00	7	(2)	(2)	(2)	6	(2)	(2)	(2)
Maintenance helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	113	.729	47.1	37.04	29	.671	46.2	33.10	10	.731	40.2	29.46
Maintenance laborers.....	110	.686	41.8	29.88	12	.633	39.3	25.10				
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	49	.877	45.8	43.17	11	.773	43.5	36.05	19	.848	40.4	34.47
Mechanics.....	104	.805	45.4	39.07	86	.763	41.5	32.87	9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous workers, not elsewhere classified.....	151	.786	42.5	34.71	100	.627	42.4	27.71	40	.745	42.0	32.10
Oilers, machinery.....	34	.709	44.7	33.44	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	21	.771	40.0	30.82
Ore handlers.....	148	.681	45.4	32.69	92	.592	44.3	27.59	16	.635	42.0	27.40
Plant-protection and cus- todial workers.....	48	.722	43.1	32.69	22	.550	41.0	22.89	13	.660	40.0	26.61
Power and transportation workers.....	30	.781	48.1	40.68	22	.815	46.6	40.71	9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Samplers.....	30	.705	44.9	33.50	29	.655	44.4	30.89	11	.635	46.5	31.49
Truck drivers.....	21	.797	44.8	38.18	51	.779	40.0	32.21	2	(2)	(2)	(2)

¹ Note inclusion of clerical workers, office.² Too few workers to show averages.

Mercury mining.—Average hourly earnings for the 444 mercury-mine workers covered by the survey were 61.2 cents (table 13). By occupation, average hourly earnings ranged from 43.5 cents for 11 inside cagers to 77.4 cents for 10 mechanics.

TABLE 13.—Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Mercury Mines, by Occupation, August 1941

Occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	444	¹ \$0.612	47.4	\$31.63
Cagers, inside.....	11	.435	40.3	18.83
Drilling-machine operators.....	98	.695	47.2	35.67
Foremen, working.....	20	.685	49.7	36.02
Hoistmen.....	27	.557	50.4	31.05
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	15	.659	48.1	34.95
Mechanics.....	10	.774	50.1	42.30
Miscellaneous workers, not elsewhere classified.....	26	.590	49.9	32.04
Muckers.....	123	.526	47.1	27.22
Roustabouts.....	28	.511	46.1	25.62
Shovel operators.....	12	.731	49.3	39.44
Timbermen.....	12	.665	47.3	34.30
Trammers.....	24	.636	44.6	30.85
Truck and tractor operators.....	38	.675	47.2	34.55

¹ Average without overtime punitive earnings; with such earnings, the average would have been \$0.667.

Other mining and milling.—The 912 workers in other nonferrous-metal mines earned an average of 78.2 cents per hour (table 14). The occupational range in earnings extended from 64.7 cents for 10 clean-up men to 89.9 cents for 31 working foremen and their assistants. Drilling-machine operators, numbering 152, earned an average of 85.3 cents per hour. Hand miners (121), a general classification comprehending a number of related skills, earned an average of 76.2 cents per hour.

TABLE 14.—*Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Other¹ Nonferrous-Metal Mining, by Occupation, August 1941*

Occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	912	² \$0.782	45.7	\$38.01
Blacksmiths.....	11	.784	47.5	40.25
Clean-up men.....	10	.647	39.6	27.50
Drilling-machine operators.....	152	.853	46.1	42.34
Helpers.....	176	.721	45.9	35.75
Foremen and assistants, working.....	31	.899	47.8	45.88
Hoistmen, surface and underground.....	23	.731	47.7	37.58
Loading-machine operators.....	53	.876	46.4	43.88
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	16	.868	45.6	43.26
Mechanics.....	15	.794	48.6	41.68
Miners, hand.....	121	.762	41.6	33.86
Miscellaneous workers.....	118	.766	46.5	38.49
Motormen.....	36	.782	48.9	41.70
Motorman's helpers.....	31	.707	46.9	36.26
Pumpmen, surface and underground.....	11	.809	47.4	42.57
Roustabouts.....	55	.755	44.5	35.86
Timbermen.....	53	.772	47.0	39.19

¹ Manganese, molybdenum, and tungsten.

² Average without punitive overtime earnings; with such earnings, the average would have been \$0.843.

Average straight-time hourly earnings for workers in other nonferrous-metal milling were 75.7 cents (table 15). The occupational range in average hourly earnings extended from 61.6 cents for swingmen to 90.5 cents for working foremen and their assistants.

TABLE 15.—*Straight-Time Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings for Workers in Other¹ Nonferrous-Metal Milling, by Occupation², August 1941*

Occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average total weekly earnings
All occupations.....	426	² \$0.757	47.3	\$38.79
All-around mill-machinery operators.....	26	.657	47.9	34.17
Ball-mill operators.....	26	.827	47.2	42.12
Clerical workers.....	10	.866	49.3	45.69
Crusher operators.....	24	.729	46.0	35.83
Flotation operators.....	11	.840	43.7	39.58
Foremen and assistants, working.....	24	.905	50.8	50.28
General helpers, mill.....	101	.719	46.0	35.76
Maintenance workers, not elsewhere classified.....	32	.810	48.5	42.66
Mechanics.....	53	.813	48.6	43.05
Miscellaneous workers, not elsewhere classified.....	30	.763	46.4	38.02
Ore handlers.....	49	.699	47.9	36.29
Samplers.....	13	.735	45.1	35.46
Swingmen.....	15	.616	50.4	34.52
Table men.....	12	.741	45.1	35.48

¹ Manganese, molybdenum, and tungsten.

² Note inclusion of clerical workers.

³ Average straight-time hourly earnings; including payment for overtime, the average is raised to \$0.819.

Weekly Hours and Earnings

Although a standard workweek of 40 hours is generally recognized in the mining and milling of nonferrous metals, actual hours in the late summer of 1941 were considerably longer than this in many areas. It has been seen that weekly hours in various parts of the copper-mining industry averaged 40.0, 45.3, and 43.1, and that in other branches of mining and milling hours above 40 were typical.

A workweek of exactly 40 hours was the stint of only 36.3 percent of the wage earners in western nonferrous-metal mines during the period studied (table 16). Another contingent in the West, constituting 25.8 percent of the wage earners in that region, worked 48 hours. In the Tri-State District, 23.5 percent of those employed in nonferrous-metal mines worked 40 hours and an additional 35.8 percent worked 48 hours. A 48-hour workweek was reported for 47.5 percent of the workers in Michigan mines, with an additional 39.1 percent working 40 hours. Over half (53.3 percent) of the wage earners in eastern mines worked 40 hours weekly.

Of the wage earners in western nonferrous-metal mills, 57.3 percent worked 48 hours during the week studied, and another 19.8 percent worked a 40-hour week. In the Tri-State District, 42.9 percent and 27.4 percent worked 40 hours and 48 hours, respectively. Almost seven-tenths (69.7 percent) of the nonferrous-metal mill workers in Michigan and 59.3 percent in the East worked 40 hours.

Average total weekly earnings in the various branches and regions of nonferrous-metal mining and milling, as well as for many occupational groups, were shown in tables 9-15.

TABLE 16.—*Proportionate Regional Distribution of Workers by Weekly Hours Worked, in Nonferrous-Metal Mines and Mills, August 1941*

Item	West		Tri-State District		Michigan		East	
	Mines	Mills	Mines	Mills	Mines	Mills	Mines	Mills
Actual weekly hours:								
Under 24 hours.....	4.7	1.7	3.4	2.6	1.8	2.9	2.2	0.6
24 and under 32 hours.....	2.8	1.7	2.1	.5	1.8	.6	3.4	.3
32 and under 36 hours.....	4.6	1.9	3.1	1.3	3.7	2.9	5.3	2.8
36 and under 40 hours.....	3.0	.3	14.6	.6	.7	.6	1.3	2.5
Exactly 40 hours.....	36.3	19.8	23.5	42.9	39.1	69.7	53.3	59.3
Over 40 and under 44 hours.....	2.7	1.2	4.3	8.0	2.2	3.5	12.2	11.8
44 and under 48 hours.....	11.9	2.8	8.1	7.8	1.7	5.8	1.3	.3
Exactly 48 hours.....	25.8	57.3	35.8	27.4	47.5	9.9	18.3	11.5
Over 48 and under 56 hours.....	4.3	4.8	3.0	5.5	.4	-----	1.2	1.9
56 hours and over.....	3.9	8.5	2.1	3.4	1.1	4.1	1.5	9.0
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	15,515	4,084	2,854	957	1,383	172	919	321
Number of units.....	62	34	32	19	3	2	4	4

Average total weekly earnings in copper mines ranged from \$22.15 in Michigan to \$34.98 in the Northwest and \$35.56 in the Southwest (table 9). For drilling-machine operators, the regional differences spanned a range from \$25.04 in Michigan to \$39.74 in the Southwest. Within the group of workers in northwestern copper mines, average

total weekly earnings varied between a low of \$25.11 for roustabouts and a high of \$50.36 for working foremen and their assistants. In the Southwest, the corresponding occupational differences extended from \$24.89 for common laborers to \$51.12 for shovel operators. In Michigan, the occupational range was from \$14.33 for miscellaneous workers to \$29.10 for working foremen and their assistants.

In northwestern copper mills workers earned an average of \$42.13 weekly (table 10). This average exceeded the amount of the average weekly pay envelope for copper-mine workers in the same region. The corresponding average of \$33.41 for southwestern copper-mill workers fell below the average for copper-mine workers in that region. In northwestern copper mills, the occupational differences in weekly earnings extended from an average of \$33.10 for plant-protection and custodial workers to an average of \$50.47 for working foremen. The range in southwestern copper mills was from an average of \$27.15 for maintenance laborers to an average of \$46.72 for working foremen.

Average total weekly earnings in lead and zinc mining varied within a narrow regional range; \$32.11 in the Tri-State District, \$32.23 in the East, and \$32.27 in the West (table 11). In the West, change-house workers earned only \$26.14, whereas working foremen and their assistants earned \$43.80. The occupational range in the Tri-State District was from \$22.13 for watchmen to \$41.02 for loading-machine operators. In the East, roustabouts earned an average of \$22.95 and working foremen and their assistants earned an average of \$42.51. In contrast with lead and zinc mining, regional differences in average total weekly earnings in the lead and zinc mills covered a broader range: In the Tri-State District, the average was \$30.54; in the East, \$31.91; and in the West, \$34.61 (table 12).

Workers in mercury mines averaged \$31.63 per week (table 13), while workers in other mines and mills earned \$38.01 and \$38.79, respectively (tables 14 and 15).



WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN UNITED STATES INDUSTRIES

THE following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending March 15, 1942, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments
During Month Ending March 15, 1942¹*

Group and industry	Establishments		Employees		Average percent of change in wage rates of employees having increases
	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	Total number covered	Number receiving increases	
All manufacturing.....	34,587	814	8,107,060	204,525	7.9
Durable goods.....	13,134	398	4,632,170	119,900	8.1
Nondurable goods.....	21,453	416	3,474,890	84,625	7.7
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	2,666	90	1,177,910	24,187	9.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	341	11	572,087	8,454	9.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	68	3	18,938	343	10.0
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools.....	114	3	18,023	339	9.6
Forgings, iron and steel.....	105	4	24,623	651	8.1
Plumbers' supplies.....	111	5	25,865	624	5.7
Stamped and enameled ware.....	253	6	47,823	995	8.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	120	5	47,980	3,516	7.5
Stoves.....	250	21	35,089	2,080	8.5
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....	301	13	37,547	959	7.0
Tin cans and other tinware.....	143	3	32,672	1,930	20.4
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	129	3	20,808	760	8.6
Screw machine products.....	87	5	27,132	599	10.9
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	3,972	174	1,365,932	55,959	8.0
Agricultural implements (including tractors).....	115	3	69,919	4,923	4.8
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	628	30	(2)	12,960	7.2
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills.....	84	6	(2)	2,040	5.7
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	2,312	96	443,290	16,679	8.6
Machine tools.....	185	9	(2)	7,820	11.4
Radios and phonographs.....	72	5	58,478	2,529	12.8
Textile machinery and parts.....	128	7	26,092	1,076	9.9
Machine-tool accessories.....	131	3	(2)	395	7.6
Pumps.....	109	6	35,969	6,388	5.8
Refrigerators and refrigerating apparatus.....	63	5	30,318	599	4.0
Transportation equipment.....	899	18	1,195,643	5,135	6.1
Aircraft.....	135	7	(2)	4,176	4.2
Automobiles.....	385	6	292,093	477	11.6
Shipbuilding.....	262	5	(2)	482	16.9
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	1,139	29	294,120	19,485	7.3
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	360	17	(2)	17,145	7.4
Lighting equipment.....	90	3	13,598	501	8.3
Sheet-metal work.....	146	3	8,759	212	4.8
Nonferrous metals and products, not elsewhere classified.....	68	3	23,962	253	12.4
Lumber and allied products.....	2,866	57	365,699	10,550	7.1
Furniture.....	754	13	116,483	3,266	6.4
Lumber:					
Millwork.....	560	9	37,595	940	7.3
Sawmills.....	738	22	139,494	4,877	6.8
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	146	5	15,249	718	12.3
Lumber and allied products, not elsewhere classified.....	182	6	21,430	544	7.6
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	1,592	30	232,866	4,584	6.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	526	8	45,367	1,025	7.0
Pottery.....	130	4	33,960	682	9.5
Asbestos products.....	26	4	10,865	1,096	4.8
Concrete products.....	103	3	2,532	93	11.3
Lime.....	89	5	6,420	281	7.1
Textiles and their products.....	6,880	88	1,445,101	18,697	7.9
Fabrics.....	3,471	66	1,033,591	15,230	7.5
Cotton goods.....	829	12	462,284	5,108	7.3
Cotton smallwares.....	126	8	16,085	1,127	7.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	214	6	61,062	1,542	10.6
Hosiery.....	509	10	109,673	1,944	6.2
Silk and rayon goods.....	469	11	78,645	2,471	7.7
Woolen and worsted goods.....	417	11	152,738	1,811	6.3
Cordage and twine.....	63	3	14,033	544	4.9
Wearing apparel.....	3,409	22	411,510	3,467	9.6
Clothing, men's.....	1,128	5	163,160	847	7.8
Clothing, women's.....	1,206	3	99,008	182	8.4
Textiles, not elsewhere classified.....	388	13	48,320	2,249	10.4

See footnotes at end of table.

*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments
During Month Ending March 15, 1942—Continued*

Group and industry	Establishments		Employees		Average percent of change in wage rates of employees having increases
	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	Total number covered	Number receiving increases	
Leather and its manufactures.....	1,089	29	258,166	15,547	8.9
Boots and shoes.....	505	6	181,308	10,154	10.1
Leather.....	176	11	39,976	4,257	5.9
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	122	6	10,655	399	7.8
Leather, not elsewhere classified.....	140	3	8,774	506	10.0
Food and kindred products.....	5,298	104	473,549	8,340	7.8
Baking.....	1,044	13	83,377	1,341	5.8
Beverages.....	610	13	42,019	737	5.4
Butter.....	318	4	5,987	139	8.5
Canning and preserving.....	1,069	25	63,097	2,019	7.7
Confectionery.....	273	4	39,280	82	10.4
Flour.....	340	9	15,641	261	6.9
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	333	5	138,311	846	9.0
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	112	18	7,644	869	7.7
Food, not elsewhere classified.....	600	10	39,372	1,920	9.7
Tobacco manufactures.....	220	5	71,234	1,429	7.6
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	42	3	10,836	1,019	9.2
Paper and printing.....	4,135	88	419,085	11,557	7.0
Boxes, paper.....	684	7	51,801	1,049	9.7
Paper and pulp.....	437	29	145,259	7,787	6.7
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job.....	1,546	29	78,260	1,243	6.4
Newspapers and periodicals.....	747	10	64,101	682	9.3
Paper goods, not elsewhere classified.....	152	6	25,752	494	4.7
Lithographing.....	89	3	8,041	104	5.3
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products.....	2,521	74	461,780	21,615	7.0
Chemicals.....	262	20	91,465	13,809	7.1
Fertilizers.....	337	9	21,853	808	10.5
Paints and varnishes.....	509	21	25,600	2,448	6.9
Soap.....	91	6	17,064	1,705	2.5
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	78	4	2,972	75	5.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	240	6	23,668	427	7.7
Rubber products.....	276	5	134,132	4,826	6.5
Rubber goods, other.....	222	3	52,621	1,535	5.2
Miscellaneous.....	1,034	23	211,843	2,614	8.8
Instruments—professional, scientific, and commercial.....	79	4	(¹)	467	6.9
Miscellaneous industries, not elsewhere classified.....	644	10	66,529	935	7.1
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction).....	² 90,360	234	² 3,053,200	8,448	6.8
Metalliferous mining.....	² 450	35	² 83,800	3,855	5.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	² 1,110	4	² 39,300	96	11.4
Public utilities:					
Electric light and power.....	² 2,700	4	² 240,300	667	7.8
Street railways and busses.....	² 340	8	² 133,000	851	8.1
Trade:					
Wholesale.....	² 14,690	38	² 348,600	1,078	9.0
Retail.....	² 50,800	121	² 1,018,600	711	9.8
Hotels (year-round).....	² 1,900	6	² 144,600	152	8.6
Laundries.....	² 1,270	7	² 83,000	555	7.0
Dyeing and cleaning.....	² 840	5	² 17,500	36	8.3
Insurance.....	² 2,890	3	² 135,000	109	9.2

¹ Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included where practicable in "all manufacturing," and in the various industry groups. No decreases reported.

² Included in group totals but not available for publication separately.

³ Approximate—based on previous month's sample.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS OF REDCAPS

REDCAPS in railroad terminals passed from a nonemployee to an employee status, receiving wages instead of tips, with the enactment and operation of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. In a study made by the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor it is stated that other significant aspects of the period 1938-41 for redcaps are related to their changed status, that is the development of collective bargaining, the coverage of redcaps under social legislation, changing technological developments, and changes in railroad-passenger relationships regarding the furnishing of redcap service. The number of redcaps employed decreased 5 percent from June 1938 to June 1941, or from 4,486 to 4,264, but the analysis shows that, on the whole, those employed were receiving substantially higher total hourly earnings in 1941 than in 1938. The change from a "free-tipping" to a salary basis was not solely responsible for the rise; the increase in travel also contributed. However, the report under review concludes that earnings rose primarily because of minimum-wage requirements, the rationalization of the redcap service, and the increased opportunities afforded to those remaining in the service after the decline in employment.

The wage and hour law provided for a minimum wage of 25 cents an hour for the first year. Prior to October 1938, about 70 percent of the redcaps were working for tips and received no wages. Another 15 percent received wages amounting to less than 25 cents hourly. Fifteen percent of the total had salaries amounting to 25 cents an hour or more, and of these one-half were in the far West where salaries have always been paid. In all cases tips were calculated as part of earnings.

In stations where no wages had been paid in the early part of 1938, wages were, in general, placed on the accounting and guaranty system after the wage and hour law became effective on October 24 of that year. Under the accounting and guaranty plan, tips were counted as wages, and the difference between the tips and the minimum wage required was guaranteed by the railroad. By June 1941 there was another change—to the "check-and-charge" system, which affected 75 percent of the total redcap force. A service charge on a per-bag basis was substituted for the tipping system as a means of raising revenue from which to pay redcaps the required minimum wage. At the end of the transition redcaps were on the pay roll at minimum wages or higher, and tips supplemented salaries to some extent.

Before the Fair Labor Standards Act became law, no records of hours and earnings of redcaps were kept. For the subsequent period, the records under the check-and-charge system of payments are the most accurate. The evidence indicates that average hourly earnings before the law was operative were between 26 and 35 cents an hour, and there was no substantial change under the accounting and guaranty plan. In June 1941, redcaps who worked under the check-and-charge system averaged 40 cents an hour, exclusive of tips—44 cents for those under bonus systems and 37 cents for those on straight hourly rates. On the average, tips amounted to at least 5 cents an hour over and above wages, bringing average hourly earnings to 45 cents. In stations where redcaps received regular wages plus tips they averaged at least 37 cents hourly in wages and 17 cents in tips, or at least 54 cents hourly.

On the whole, weekly wages also rose during the 1938-41 period, in spite of a reduction in working hours, as the increase in hourly rates offset the decrease in hours. Average weekly earnings advanced more than the cost of living in the period of change from free tipping to check-and-charge payment.

The most important deduction from wages was for uniforms. Some 236 stations employing 3,427 redcaps required their employees to wear uniforms. Of these, 159, employing 1,943 redcaps, required the employees to bear the full cost of uniforms. Seventy-three stations employing 167 redcaps required only the wearing of caps, and 47 of these required employees to buy them. The cost of purchasing and renewing a uniform was approximately \$30 a year—roughly 1 or 2 cents an hour if spread over a full working year. Wage deductions were made also for relief associations, life, sick, accident, and group insurance, credit-union loans, and for the accounts of merchandisers.

Many railroad officials could not estimate the hours worked by redcaps before the wage and hour law came into force. Testimony indicates that man-hours of employment declined subsequently, but there is no basis for estimating the amount. Employment and man-hours dropped in the period 1938-41, whereas revenue passengers increased by 7 percent and revenue-passenger-miles by 34 percent. Employment was adversely affected as more passengers began to carry their own bags and also by the introduction of hand trucks and multiple-passenger service systems for carrying luggage. Redcaps are not covered by the hours provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, but application of the wage provisions has indirectly affected their working time. After the minimum hourly pay became subject to regulation, more interest was taken in assigning the redcaps regular hours. Between 1938 and 1941, daily hours were generally reduced from more than 8 to approximately 8. The 7-day week had been general, but union agreements introduced over the last 3 years provide for a day off every 1 or every 2 weeks. In stations where records were kept, 78.7 percent of the redcaps were working 42 hours or more weekly in June 1938, but by 1941 the proportion was reduced to 53.5 percent. Over the 3 years, the concentration in the group working 28 to 42 hours per week increased from 16.8 to 45.7 percent. Thus, both part time and long hours tended to decline.



STAGGERED VACATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1942

A STAGGERED system of vacations in 1942 for workers in Great Britain has been recommended by the Ministry of Labor and National Service. The plan as reported in the Manchester Guardian of February 26, 1942, calls for granting an annual vacation not to exceed 1 week, with moderate well-planned breaks to keep the national effort at the fullest effectiveness. Vacations are to be staggered during the period between April and the autumn, in order to maintain a smooth flow of production and prevent pressure on transportation facilities. The Ministry recommends that travel shall be kept at a minimum.

In addition, the policy adopted is to grant a 1-day break for most workers on Easter, Whit, and August Mondays, and corresponding holidays in Scotland to meet local arrangements and custom.

HOURS OF WORK AND LOST TIME IN GREAT BRITAIN

THE problem of maximum production in Great Britain in its relation to the health and efficiency of the workers has been a special consideration of the Industrial Health Research Board (formerly the Industrial Fatigue Research Board), which succeeded the Committee on the Health of Munition Workers established during the war of 1914-18. The Board's first emergency report, published in 1940, summarized the general conclusions reached by the Health of Munition Workers' Committee and the research work of the period intervening between the two wars, insofar as these related to fatigue, to environmental conditions—lighting, heating, and ventilation—and to the problems of proneness to accident, and absenteeism caused by sickness. A second report¹ gives the results of an investigation in a number of munition factories during the period from the outbreak of the second World War until the end of June 1941. The general conclusions reached in the second report are as follows:

1. The results of this inquiry show that the time lost by factory workers through sickness, injury, and absence without permission, when undisturbed by extraneous factors, varied with the weekly hours of work. It was usually low when the hours of work were less than 60 per week, but increased as the hours increased up to 75.
2. The findings suggest that, over an extended period, the weekly hours of work should generally not exceed 60 to 65 for men and 55 to 60 for women.
3. In all the groups the workers were stimulated to an increased output after the collapse of France, and although it was physiologically impossible to maintain the maximum level reached, output in nearly every case has since remained above the previous level.
4. The beneficial effects of a reduction in excessive hours of work, together with the inauguration of staggered holidays, were reflected in an increase in the rate of working afterwards.
5. Labor wastage varied considerably from one factory to another. Some of the conditions leading to a high rate were the employment of women unaccustomed to factory work or married women whose domestic responsibilities prevented satisfactory adjustment to factory life; difficulties of shopping and getting suitable meals, and the problem of transport, were important in this connection.
6. Women, on the whole, lost more time than men, for reasons such as those given in the previous section.
7. In conclusion, when it is remembered that many workers lived far from the factories, and had to face air raids when traveling to and from work; that some had lost their homes and had to sleep in improvised shelters; and that often they had to wait outside in the cold and rain because of inadequate transport arrangements; the timekeeping of the factory personnel studied deserves high praise.

Lost Time

In addition to the many external factors influencing production in wartime, such as fewer orders, machine stoppages, time spent in air-raid shelters or lost owing to enemy action, the human factor has to be taken into consideration. Under the spur of emergency the worker may achieve amazing results, but with the best will in the world it is impossible to maintain peak production indefinitely. The report comments:

If the work is of such a nature that the machine is merely the instrument of the worker, then the human variation in well-being shows clearly; if the human being is rather an appendage to the machine, the effects are less striking but still present. The majority of processes are mixed.

¹ Great Britain. Industrial Health Research Board. Emergency report No. 2: Hours of Work, Lost Time, and Labor Wastage. London, 1942.

The present study had for its main problem investigation of the time lost through sickness, injury, and absence without permission, but also included data on hours of work and on output in relation to these hours, and a short study on labor wastage. In making the study it was found difficult to assess the amount and the causes of lost time, as in most factories the records covered only the normal working week of 47 hours and did not give the absenteeism during overtime hours. In some cases all absenteeism was noted, in others less than 1 day's absence was not recorded, and some recorded only sickness absenteeism of more than 3 days. The records were equally indefinite regarding the causes of lost time, as while some organizations classified the lost time as resulting from sickness, injury, leave, and absence without permission, others did not distinguish between sickness and injury nor between absence with and absence without permission. Most of the factories covered by the study employed the workers on ordinary day and night shifts. In two factories employing, respectively, 3,500 workers (chiefly men), and 5,000 men, the general trend of the curves showed that the percentage of time lost because of sickness, injury, and absence without leave tended to increase from the outbreak of the war to the first part of 1941. The variations within this general trend showed an increase in lost time in September and October 1939, following an increase in the working hours after the outbreak of war; increase of sickness absenteeism resulting from an influenza epidemic which reached its peak in February 1940; increased lost time during the emergency period in June and July 1940, following the fall of France, when munition factories were working from 70 to 75 hours a week; and increased lost time from September 1940 onward when the increased frequency and intensity of air raids disrupted home life and transportation. The gradual introduction of woman workers, who lost more time than men, also helped to swell the total. Records from April to June 1941 showed an improvement in the lost time over that of the winter months. The following table shows the average amount of time lost in 13 factories during the 3 months April to June 1941, based on the normal week of 47 hours.

Average Time Lost During Normal Workweek of 47 Hours, in 13 British Factories, April to June 1941, by Cause

Factory	Number of workers	Actual hours worked	Percent of normal time lost			
			Sickness	Injury	Absence without permission	Total
Factory A.....	6,000	48.6	4.7	0.2	3.8	8.7
Factory B.....	3,500	54.6	5.9	.9	3.2	10.0
Factory C.....	5,000	56.4	2.8	.6	3.9	7.3
Factory D.....	15,000	54.3	2.5	.6	3.6	6.7
Factory E.....	3,000	51.9	5.6	.3	.8	6.7
Factory F.....	5,000	54.0	3.4	.2	7.4	11.0
Factory G.....	4,550	50.7	2.4	.4	.8	3.6
Factory H.....	3,500	53.5	2.5	.9	2.9	6.3
Factory I.....	1,100	55.7	1.3	.3	6.2	7.8
Factory J.....	1,500	55.7	1.9	.7	6.0	8.6
Factory K.....	1,000	52.0	2.1	.3	2.0	4.4
Factory L.....	13,000	53.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.8
Factory M.....	6,000	56.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.1

¹ No records.

The average time lost in all the factories because of sickness, injury, and absence without permission was 7.1 percent, and for absence without permission alone, 3.7 percent. It is considered that in view of the hours of work, transportation difficulties, and the influx of new workers not familiar with factory life, the time lost was not excessive. During this period the official working hours were from 60 to 65 per week for men and from 55 to 60 for women. From information secured later it is estimated that if overtime had been included, the totals in the table would have been increased by from 1 to 2 percent.

A classification was made of causes of sickness absenteeism among men in one factory employing an average of 4,650 men in the last 7 months of 1940 and one employing an average of 2,138 women in the same period. The hours of work for men varied from 70½ in June to 65½ from August to December, and for women from 67½ in June to 57 in the last 4 months of the year. Respiratory affections were responsible for the greatest amount of lost time, the average number of men (per 1,000 workers) absent per week ranging from 7.9 in June to 16.2 in December, while among women the average ranged from 2.6 to 21.4 in the same months. Other principal causes of absenteeism among men were, in the order of their importance, gastric affections, nervous affections, rheumatism and allied affections, and various septic conditions such as boils, carbuncles, and ulcers. Among women gastric affections and nervous conditions were responsible for a high proportion of absences. It was considered that the greater proneness of women to nervous diseases was augmented by wartime conditions of employment.

Absence without permission in almost all the factories was related to the hours of work, increasing with the longer hours. Casual absenteeism was usually much greater on Saturday and Sunday than on other days and was lowest on Friday (pay day). This tendency was especially striking during the 7-day week at the height of the 1940 emergency period.

Hours and Output

The data on output in relation to the hours worked were based on records of a limited number of experienced workers who were regularly employed on the same type of work, and covered the period from the end of May 1940 when the hours of work were increased to the end of April 1941. In all the groups studied the work tempo was stimulated by the emergency and the appeal for more production in the latter part of May 1940. However, the strength of this incentive gradually waned, although it is said that there is reason to believe it always remained above the preemergency level and was stimulated by war successes and depressed by defeats.

The appeal for more production, coupled with longer working hours and the extra effort made by the workers, resulted in an immediate and substantial rise in weekly production, but the additional fatigue and strain caused by the long hours of work resulted in a drop in both the hourly and weekly output. Time lost from sickness, injury, and absence without permission increased during this period, and the workers tended to become listless and stale. Serious effects on health and efficiency were avoided, however, by some reduction in hours of work in June and July. The production rate was affected by various factors other than the hours of work, such as the reduced efficiency of machines

because of the greater wear and lack of time for overhaul and repairs and the interruptions caused by air-raid warnings in the fall of 1940. In spite of the many factors influencing output, which make it difficult to draw hard and fast conclusions, it is stated in the report that "the long hours in June and July 1940, plus the extra effort made by the workers, were usually detrimental to sustained productive effort, while the latter results suggest that there is little to gain, and probably more to lose, when the weekly hours of work exceed 60 to 65 for men and 55 to 60 for women. Finally, the higher hourly output observed in most groups from June 1940 to March 1941, despite the longer hours of work is evidence of the increased effort made by the workers in response to the national appeal for more production."

Labor Wastage

Labor wastage as represented by workers who leave their employment frequently results in an appreciable economic loss. The ratio between the number leaving in a given period and the average number employed in that period was used to measure the labor wastage in ten factories doing fairly different types of work. The period covered by the reports was the year ending June 1941, thus including the greater part of the emergency period.

The average number who left during the year in the different factories varied from 14.7 to 84.2 percent of the average number employed. The wastage was relatively high during the last half of 1940 but decreased in the first quarter of 1941. After the introduction of the Essential Work Order in April 1941, which provided that no person could leave his employment or be discharged (except for serious misconduct) without the permission of the National Service Officer, there was a further decrease in the number leaving employment.

In general the labor wastage during the year ending June 1941 was higher for women than for men. Factors contributing to the high rate were the rapid expansion of industry, with the employment of many workers, especially women, who were unused to factory life; employment of married women who found it difficult to combine factory work and home duties; the necessity of traveling long distances to and from work; the effect of air raids on home life and transportation, particularly in the latter half of 1940; lack of suitable facilities for meals in some factories; and inadequate supervision of new workers. The high rate of turn-over was due largely to workers who left of their own accord, the number dismissed usually being very small.

Wage and Hour Regulation

EFFECT OF MINIMUM WAGE ON ANNUAL EARNINGS IN NEW YORK LAUNDRIES

THE "average" woman worker in the laundry industry in the State of New York has benefited by the operation of the minimum-wage order in that industry. Her workweek has been more stable, and she has earned more money with which to purchase the necessities of life.

The laundry industry is one of the important woman-employing industries in New York, approximately 24,000 women being employed therein. The present minimum-wage order for the industry was promulgated as a directory order on March 14, 1938, and made mandatory on August 22, 1938. This order is especially significant in that it provides for a minimum weekly wage.

Under the order any employer in New York City and Westchester and Nassau Counties (designated zone A) who employs a woman or male minor shall pay at the rate of at least \$14 a week, even if such employee works only 1 hour during the week. For other cities in the State with a population of over 18,000 inhabitants (zone B), the minimum weekly wage was to be \$12.80 at first, but was gradually to be raised until after December 30, 1939, the rate became \$14. In small communities (zone C) a rate of 30 cents an hour was provided.

In order to determine the effect of the minimum-wage provisions on the annual earnings and working time of woman employees in laundries, and how the industry had adjusted to the order, the Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage of the New York Department of Labor made an investigation, in which 417 laundries throughout the State were visited. The data herein presented are from the summary report of that survey.¹

The 417 laundries represented approximately 15 percent of those employing women and minors. Annual earnings were obtained for 4,782 women for the year ending February 1938, before the order was promulgated, and for 5,187 women for the year ending February 1940 after the order was in operation. The increase in the number of women for whom annual earnings were obtained is an indication that in identical establishments more women had work for the entire year after the order became operative than before.

Not only a full year's employment for more women but also higher annual earnings for them have been brought about by the minimum weekly wage in the laundry industry. Annual earnings for the "average" woman worker increased from \$726.87 in 1937-38 to \$787.42 in

¹ New York. Department of Labor. Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage. Industrial Bulletin (New York), February 1942 (p. 62).

1939-40, or 8 percent. This is especially significant when it is considered that average annual earnings of factory workers decreased approximately 2 percent from 1937 to 1939.

The higher annual earnings were not confined to the lower-paid women; all women, even those receiving more than the minimum fixed, were benefited. Therefore, the minimum did not become the maximum, as may be seen in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Annual Earnings of Woman Laundry Workers in New York State, Years Ending February 1938 and 1940*

Annual earnings	1937-38 (before wage order)		1939-40 (after wage order)	
	Number of women	Percent of total	Number of women	Percent of total
Total reporting.....	4,782	100.0	5,187	100.0
Under \$600.....	635	13.3	211	4.1
\$600 and under \$700.....	1,260	26.3	503	9.7
\$700 and under \$750.....	923	19.3	998	19.2
\$750 and under \$800.....	674	14.1	1,178	22.7
\$800 and under \$900.....	563	11.8	1,239	23.9
\$900 and under \$1,000.....	330	6.9	456	8.8
\$1,000 and over.....	397	8.3	602	11.6

The increase in earnings was found in all occupational groups. Flatwork operators, hand ironers, press operators, packers and sorters, and women in other occupations all had more money to spend for the goods and services essential for living. The same differences in earnings between occupations existed after as before the promulgation of the order, but not in the same proportion. The increase in median earnings, for instance, of press operators (one of the higher-paid occupations) was 7 percent, or from \$755.26 in 1937-38 to \$810.99 in 1939-40. For flatwork operators, the largest occupational group and the lowest paid, the increase in the same period was 9 percent, or from \$697.42 to \$762.18. In table 2 are shown the median earnings in the different laundry occupations in the years ending February 1938 and February 1940, and the percent of increase after the wage order.

TABLE 2.—*Median Annual Earnings of Woman Laundry Workers in New York State, by Occupation, 1937-38 and 1939-40*

Occupation	Median annual earnings		Percent of increase after wage order
	1937-38 (before wage order)	1939-40 (after wage order)	
Total reporting.....	\$726.74	\$787.44	8.4
Flatwork operators.....	697.42	762.18	9.3
Hand ironers.....	725.00	798.86	10.2
Shirt finishers.....	789.67	866.07	9.7
Press operators.....	755.26	810.99	7.4
Folders.....	734.38	787.50	7.2
Packers and sorters.....	741.81	801.36	8.0
Menders.....	791.25	823.68	4.1
Starchers.....	714.00	763.89	7.0
Supervisors.....	975.00	983.33	.9
All others.....	705.39	762.73	8.1

Higher earnings of women after the wage order became effective were the rule in all laundries regardless of size. The percentage of increase did not vary according to the size of the laundry. For example, in small laundries with from 5 to 9 persons the increase in median earnings was 7 percent, and in larger laundries employing 50 to 99 workers it was only slightly more. In medium-size laundries with 10 to 24 workers the increase was 15 percent, while in the largest laundries with 100 or more workers the increase was 9 percent.

Median annual earnings also increased in all the various types of laundries. In family power laundries the increase was almost 9 percent, rising from \$722.57 in 1937-38 to \$785.58 in 1939-40; and in linen-supply establishments, with their more regular work, the increase was 6 percent, or from \$781.67 to \$829.46.

Effect on Working Time

Four out of five of the regular woman workers were employed at least 50 weeks in the year, both before and after the laundry order. The percentage of women who worked 52 weeks in the year, however, decreased from 45 to 25, and there were fewer women who worked less than 44 weeks a year.

The median number of hours worked by women was the same after the order as before (41.6). An increase occurred, however, in the proportion of women whose average hours were between 40 and 45 hours per week, and a decrease in the proportion of women with especially short and excessively long hours.

In order to ascertain the extent to which women worked less than 40 hours a week after the order, a detailed analysis was made for power laundries in New York City and in other cities with a population of over 18,000. The majority of the women worked less than 40 hours in 1 or more weeks in the year, but only 29 percent worked a short week of 36 hours or less for more than 5 weeks of the year. The up-State area differed little from the New York City area. It was impossible to determine how much of the work under 40 hours was due to personal considerations.

Special Adjustments

About three-fourths of the individual laundry proprietors and managers questioned had not found it necessary to make any special adjustments in order to comply with the minimum weekly-wage provisions of the order. The other fourth made various changes. The most frequent adjustment in plants where long hours had been customary was made by reducing the hours so as to avoid payment of overtime. This sometimes made it necessary to employ additional workers. In plants where a short workweek was common prior to the order, workers were generally shifted from one occupation to another, thereby increasing the hours worked. Other arrangements adopted included laying off some workers in order to increase the hours of those remaining; increasing the hours of the woman workers; refraining from the employment of learners, old people, or part-time workers; and installing new machinery to increase the output per worker.

Average Weekly Earnings

When annual earnings were reduced to weekly figures, the study showed that in 1939-40 the average weekly earnings amounted to \$15.15 as compared to \$13.98 in 1937-38, an increase of 8 percent. The actual earnings of woman workers during a typical week, as shown by pay-roll records submitted annually, show a steady increase in wages since the minimum-wage order became operative. Median week's earnings in October of each year from 1937 to 1940 were \$14.27 in 1937, \$15.11 in 1938, \$15.32 in 1939, and \$15.54 in 1940. The fact that average weekly earnings for the year increased 8 percent from 1937-38 to 1939-40, while earnings for a typical week during the same period rose only 7 percent, is an indication, it is said, that the benefits from the minimum-wage order are greater on a year-round basis than would appear from the figures for a typical week.

**CUBAN MINIMUM-WAGE LAW, 1942¹**

NEW minimum-wage rates for Cuban labor in industry, commerce, agriculture, the professions, or any other kind of activity were established by decree No. 1104 of April 21, 1942. The rates are set at 1.50 pesos² per 8-hour day for work in cities and 1.30 pesos for rural industries within the constitutional provision of the 44-hour week. This legislation, replacing decree-law No. 727 of November 30, 1934, was preceded by a presidential decree of November 1941,³ which raised minimum wage rates of workers in the lower wage brackets by 20 percent over the rates (1 peso in the sugar industry and for urban workers and 0.80 centavos in the rural industries) set in the legislation of 1934, and those fixed by subsequent legislation.

As noted, under the new decree the minimum wage for an 8-hour day for work performed in cities, in urbanized zones, or partly in the city and partly in the country, is set at 1.50 pesos, and for work performed in the country, 1.30 pesos. Minimum pay for the calendar month in cities or urbanized zones, or partly in urban and partly in rural zones, is to be 45 pesos; and in rural areas 39 pesos. Where wages are paid partly in money and partly in kind, the portion paid in kind cannot exceed 40 percent of the total remuneration, and the value of shelter given as part of the wage cannot exceed 20 percent of the total. For piece work or work done by the job, the minimum wage per day established by this decree will be "reasonably guaranteed," provided the worker attains the average output for workers of his class in the locality.

For apprentices and other minors employed in Habana, the following minimum monthly rates are established: For those under 16 years, 24 pesos; for those over 16 but under 18 years, 30 pesos; and for those over 18, 36 pesos. To allow for value of payments in kind this scale may be reduced by 20 percent in the capitals of Provinces, by 30 percent in towns, and by 40 percent in the country, but in these cases

¹ Data are from report of Hugh F. Ramsay, United States consul at Habana.

² Exchange rate of Cuban peso in April 1942=\$1.

³ See *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1942 (p. 760).

deductions for food and lodging may not exceed 25 percent of the total wage; for apprentices in the city of Habana payments in kind may not exceed 40 percent of the wage, and for food and lodging 20 percent. Persons under 14 years may not be employed nor their services contracted for at a daily wage, on piece work, or by the job.

In all cases, where workers are receiving higher wages than those provided by this legislation, the higher rates shall continue to be paid. Workers whose wages are raised by the present decree will not be entitled to have the increases decreed by certain wage legislation of 1941 and 1942 applied to the minimum rate fixed for them, unless such legislation gives them a higher wage than would be provided by the present decree, in which case they are to continue to receive their present wages.

Workers on daily contract are to receive their pay at intervals of not more than 1 week; those working by the week, half month, or month must be paid at least monthly. However, where the worker is on a monthly salary, by agreement between the parties the payment may be distributed in proportional amounts within the calendar month.

For violations of the decree, fines graduated according to the class of work are to be imposed at the discretion of the local judge.

Administration of the decree is entrusted to the Minister of Labor.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, MARCH 1942

THE total hiring rate in March for industrial workers in manufacturing industries rose to the highest point since August 1933, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' monthly survey of labor turn-over. The rise reflected the expansion of production schedules in nearly all lines of manufacture, with the highest accession rates reported in strategic war industries, such as shipbuilding and aircraft. Increases, partly seasonal, were also shown in industries manufacturing brick, tile, and terra cotta, cement, and lumber.

As shown in table 1, the quit rate at 3.02 per 100 employees for all manufacturing industries combined represented a sharp increase from February to March and was nearly twice that reported in March 1941. The rise in quits in many of the industries reflected a continued attempt of workers to obtain higher wage rates but in certain instances indicated critical housing and transportation difficulties.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates of Factory Workers in Representative Establishments in 135 Industries*¹

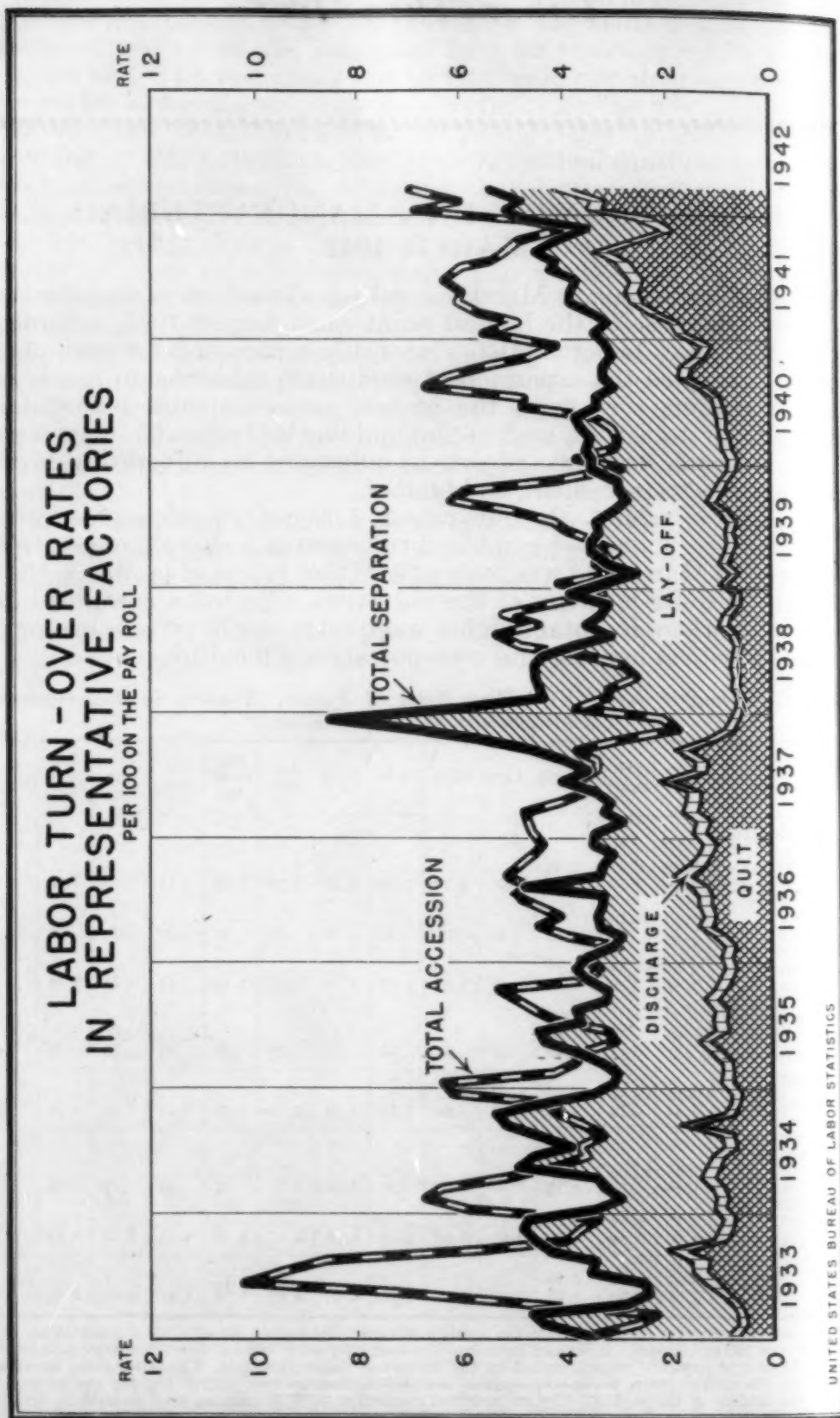
Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1942.....	2.36	2.41	3.02										
1941.....	1.31	1.33	1.70	2.08	2.20	2.06	2.25	2.46	2.81	2.11	1.57	1.75	1.97
Discharges:													
1942.....	.30	.29	.33										
1941.....	.18	.19	.21	.25	.24	.26	.29	.30	.31	.28	.24	.29	.25
Lay-offs: ²													
1942.....	1.61	1.39	1.19										
1941.....	1.61	1.20	1.06	1.19	1.08	1.03	1.40	1.13	1.16	1.41	1.44	2.15	1.32
Miscellaneous separations: ³													
1942.....	.83	.73	.82										
1941.....	.31	.43	.43	.37	.34	.36	.30	.25	.25	.33	.26	.52	.35
Total:													
1942.....	5.10	4.82	5.36										
1941.....	3.41	3.15	3.40	3.89	3.86	3.71	4.24	4.14	4.53	4.13	3.51	4.71	3.89
Accessions:													
Rehirings:													
1942.....	1.41	1.03	1.18										
1941.....	1.45	1.08	1.24	1.04	.92	.90	1.04	1.11	.87	.86	.79	.94	1.02
New hirings:													
1942.....	5.46	4.99	5.81										
1941.....	4.09	3.84	4.38	5.00	5.03	5.41	4.96	4.32	4.29	4.01	3.12	3.82	4.36
Total:													
1942.....	6.87	6.02	6.99										
1941.....	5.54	4.92	5.62	6.04	5.95	6.31	6.00	5.43	5.16	4.87	3.91	4.76	5.38

¹ The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees. It should be noted that turn-over rates are not directly comparable to the "employment and pay-roll" reports issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Turn-over rates are based on data for the entire month, while employment and pay-roll indexes refer only to the pay period ending nearest the middle of the month. Certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turn-over survey. Finally, the coverage of the labor turn-over sample is not as extensive as that of the employment sample, which includes a greater number of small plants.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

³ Military separations included.

⁴ Revised.



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Detailed data for 42 industries are shown in table 2. As in earlier reports, this table does not contain turn-over rates for strategic war industries, but in table 3 are given the quit rates in industries for which the publication of turn-over rates has been restricted.

Despite the higher number of lay-offs reported in a number of industries, which were curtailing their operations as a result of restrictions on the use of basic materials, the lay-off rate for all manufacturing combined declined from 1.39 in February to 1.19 per 100 employees in March. This type of separation continued high in automobiles and bodies plants but declined considerably in plants manufacturing automobile parts. The hiring rate for automobiles and bodies increased from 5.68 to 6.69, while that for automobile parts rose from 6.89 to 8.54 per 100 employees. Compared with February, sharp declines in lay-off rates occurred in the following industries: Paper boxes declined from 3.32 to 1.68, cement from 2.69 to 0.68, glass from 3.23 to 1.84, rubber boots and shoes from 1.25 to 0.40, meat packing from 10.19 to 5.89, stoves from 3.62 to 1.81, and woolen and worsted goods from 2.52 to 1.29, per 100 employees. Industries showing increases in lay-offs over the preceding month were agricultural implements from 0.49 to 1.35, cast-iron pipe from 0.15 to 1.02, furniture from 1.95 to 2.84, men's clothing from 0.63 to 1.33, and radios and phonographs from 1.55 to 2.63, per 100 employees.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) of Factory Workers in 42 Manufacturing Industries ¹

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Dis-charge	Lay-off	Mis-cellaneous separation ²	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Agricultural implements.....	Mar. 1942	3.02	0.47	1.35	.92	5.76	1.19	5.63	6.82
	Feb. 1942	1.54	.22	.49	.85	3.10	.34	3.62	3.96
	Mar. 1941	1.42	.18	.41	.58	2.59	.68	3.54	4.22
Automobiles and bodies.....	Mar. 1942	1.56	.26	3.29	1.08	6.09	3.10	3.59	6.69
	Feb. 1942 ³	1.50	.14	6.40	1.03	9.16	2.47	3.21	5.68
	Mar. 1941	1.81	.17	4.75	.44	7.17	2.43	3.11	5.54
Automobile parts and equipment.	Mar. 1942	2.50	.42	2.09	.81	5.82	.93	7.61	8.54
	Feb. 1942	2.41	.42	3.17	.78	6.78	1.34	5.55	6.89
	Mar. 1941	1.72	.36	1.05	.40	3.53	1.24	6.25	7.49
Boots and shoes.....	Mar. 1942	2.54	.27	.46	.54	3.81	.92	3.41	4.33
	Feb. 1942	2.14	.27	.56	.54	3.51	.98	3.83	4.81
	Mar. 1941	1.38	.18	.74	.31	2.61	.88	2.61	3.49
Boxes, paper.....	Mar. 1942	3.35	.31	1.68	.65	5.99	.63	3.84	4.47
	Feb. 1942	3.61	.38	3.32	.61	7.92	1.17	2.96	4.13
	Mar. 1941	1.45	.22	1.30	.44	3.41	1.23	4.35	5.58
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	Mar. 1942	3.69	.40	2.23	.52	6.84	2.45	5.11	7.56
	Feb. 1942	2.31	.21	3.13	.59	6.24	1.25	2.70	3.95
	Mar. 1941	1.61	.14	1.38	.37	3.50	1.93	4.55	6.48
Cast-iron pipe.....	Mar. 1942	1.84	.30	1.02	.45	3.61	.92	3.74	4.66
	Feb. 1942	1.28	.25	.15	.59	2.14	.59	2.38	2.97
	Mar. 1941	1.13	.39	.83	.51	2.86	.96	2.65	3.61
Cement.....	Mar. 1942	2.06	.18	.68	.63	3.55	2.30	3.52	5.82
	Feb. 1942	1.15	.11	2.69	.57	4.52	.61	2.17	2.78
	Mar. 1941	.64	.04	.64	.51	1.83	9.21	2.52	11.73

¹ No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.

² Military separations included.

³ Revised.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) of Factory Workers in 42 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Dis-charge	Lay-off	Mis-cellaneous separation	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Chemicals.....	Mar. 1942	2.28	0.43	0.67	0.80	4.18	0.46	5.70	6.16
	Feb. 1942	1.66	.39	.39	.87	3.31	.32	4.71	5.03
	Mar. 1941	1.08	.19	.28	.43	1.98	.68	3.91	4.59
Cigars and cigarettes.....	Mar. 1942	3.83	.07	1.28	.30	5.48	1.10	3.10	4.20
	Feb. 1942	3.48	.05	1.09	.36	4.98	1.93	3.16	5.09
	Mar. 1941	1.76	.11	1.64	.25	3.76	1.52	1.55	3.07
Cotton manufacturing.....	Mar. 1942	4.38	.36	.75	.59	6.08	1.14	5.96	7.10
	Feb. 1942	3.60	.35	.62	.58	5.15	1.25	4.99	6.24
	Mar. 1941	2.73	.23	.67	.34	3.97	1.21	4.46	5.66
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	Mar. 1942	3.86	.45	.50	.68	5.49	1.09	5.36	6.45
	Feb. 1942	2.98	.32	.48	.70	4.48	1.27	4.37	5.64
	Mar. 1941	2.29	.26	.90	.47	3.92	.49	4.33	4.82
Flour.....	Mar. 1942	3.26	.52	.75	.72	5.25	.62	3.69	4.31
	Feb. 1942	3.01	.59	.60	.44	4.64	.43	2.77	3.20
	Mar. 1941	.91	.24	.96	.47	2.58	1.57	2.04	3.61
Foundries and machine shops.....	Mar. 1942	2.89	.46	.74	.76	4.85	.55	6.43	6.98
	Feb. 1942	2.30	.40	.88	.64	4.22	.54	5.19	5.73
	Mar. 1941	1.82	.38	.67	.55	3.42	.32	6.52	6.84
Furniture.....	Mar. 1942	4.78	.39	2.84	.90	8.91	.79	5.74	6.53
	Feb. 1942	3.37	.38	1.95	.79	6.49	1.34	4.19	5.53
	Mar. 1941	2.19	.37	1.02	.51	4.09	3.10	4.24	7.34
Glass.....	Mar. 1942	2.11	.24	1.84	.98	5.17	1.36	2.76	4.12
	Feb. 1942	1.51	.22	3.23	.78	5.74	1.26	2.94	4.20
	Mar. 1941	.87	.09	1.42	.68	3.06	1.57	3.64	5.21
Hardware.....	Mar. 1942	4.65	.38	1.16	.68	6.87	1.25	3.87	5.12
	Feb. 1942	4.16	.39	1.32	.60	6.47	.74	5.29	6.03
	Mar. 1941	3.14	.43	.54	.60	4.71	.76	5.47	6.23
Iron and steel.....	Mar. 1942	1.79	.13	.35	1.06	3.33	.51	3.21	3.72
	Feb. 1942	1.52	.12	.40	.83	2.87	.71	2.51	3.22
	Mar. 1941	.93	.13	.24	.55	1.85	.33	2.80	3.13
Knit goods.....	Mar. 1942	3.16	.26	.97	.39	4.78	1.14	3.45	4.59
	Feb. 1942	2.88	.26	1.05	.34	4.53	1.11	2.99	4.10
	Mar. 1941	1.38	.13	.80	.13	2.44	1.20	2.92	4.12
Leather.....	Mar. 1942	2.02	.24	.115	.72	4.13	.49	2.78	3.27
	Feb. 1942	1.21	.24	.82	.71	2.98	.47	3.57	4.04
	Mar. 1941	.79	.09	.87	.34	2.09	.37	2.44	2.81
Lighting equipment.....	Mar. 1942	2.33	.36	5.83	1.11	9.63	4.04	4.70	8.74
	Feb. 1942	2.44	.29	5.06	.78	8.57	3.10	3.33	6.43
	Mar. 1941	2.95	.24	.47	.48	4.14	.59	6.76	7.35
Men's clothing.....	Mar. 1942	2.72	.24	1.33	.20	4.49	.89	3.27	4.16
	Feb. 1942	2.28	.20	.63	.23	3.34	1.08	3.03	4.11
	Mar. 1941	1.35	.17	1.11	.13	2.76	.69	2.85	3.54
Paints and varnishes.....	Mar. 1942	2.97	.33	1.00	.92	5.22	.49	4.74	5.23
	Feb. 1942	2.41	.29	1.79	.80	5.29	.25	3.62	3.87
	Mar. 1941	1.22	.37	.32	.59	2.50	1.04	4.77	5.81
Paper and pulp.....	Mar. 1942	2.54	.56	.67	.79	4.56	.39	4.43	4.82
	Feb. 1942	2.05	.35	.68	.75	3.83	.47	3.69	4.16
	Mar. 1941	.97	.15	.74	.45	2.31	.35	3.12	3.47
Petroleum refining.....	Mar. 1942	1.00	.09	.33	.71	2.13	.58	2.61	3.19
	Feb. 1942	.63	.06	.65	.71	2.05	.24	1.86	2.10
	Mar. 1941	.45	.03	.61	.32	1.41	.62	.90	1.52
Planing mills.....	Mar. 1942	5.03	.45	1.48	1.03	7.99	1.69	6.02	7.71
	Feb. 1942	3.74	.25	1.17	.93	6.09	2.63	3.79	6.42
	Mar. 1941	2.01	.26	.84	.54	3.65	.86	2.96	3.82
Printing: Book and job.....	Mar. 1942	2.63	.28	2.53	.65	6.09	1.10	4.32	5.42
	Feb. 1942	2.12	.21	2.57	.59	5.49	1.15	3.51	4.66
	Mar. 1941	.98	.10	2.85	.36	4.29	1.66	3.11	4.77
Printing: Newspapers and periodicals.....	Mar. 1942	.64	.10	1.27	.51	2.52	.93	1.88	2.81
	Feb. 1942	.60	.17	1.01	.54	2.32	.68	1.36	2.04
	Mar. 1941	.71	.68	.77	.18	2.34	1.25	1.35	2.60
Radios and phonographs.....	Mar. 1942	3.91	.32	2.63	.72	7.58	1.02	7.22	8.24
	Feb. 1942	3.18	.43	1.55	.65	5.81	.94	5.22	6.16
	Mar. 1941	1.94	.19	1.79	.16	4.08	1.48	3.14	4.62
Rayon and allied products.....	Mar. 1942	1.01	.19	.73	.49	2.42	.71	2.39	3.10
	Feb. 1942	1.00	.20	.45	.65	2.30	.23	2.74	2.97
	Mar. 1941	1.32	.08	.30	.30	2.00	.69	2.30	2.99
Rubber boots and shoes.....	Mar. 1942	3.86	.25	.40	1.11	5.62	2.25	4.09	6.34
	Feb. 1942	3.37	.95	1.25	.86	6.43	2.32	3.52	5.84
	Mar. 1941	1.49	.19	.98	.29	2.95	1.90	4.43	6.33
Rubber tires.....	Mar. 1942	1.22	.11	3.28	1.27	5.88	1.63	3.75	5.38
	Feb. 1942	1.33	.05	4.05	.60	6.03	1.97	4.33	6.30
	Mar. 1941	.82	.19	.23	.54	1.78	.46	4.03	4.49

TABLE

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TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) of Factory Workers in 42 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Dis-charge	Lay-off	Mis-cellaneous separation	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Sawmills.....	Mar. 1942	5.60	0.51	1.63	1.12	8.86	1.89	6.47	8.36
	Feb. 1942	4.31	.35	1.89	.98	7.53	1.85	5.36	7.21
	Mar. 1941	2.00	.21	1.98	.39	4.58	2.63	3.54	6.17
Silk and rayon goods.....	Mar. 1942	3.93	.40	.90	.53	5.76	1.26	5.08	6.34
	Feb. 1942	3.32	.43	.95	.53	5.22	1.14	4.50	5.64
	Mar. 1941	2.38	.33	.98	.21	3.90	1.38	4.23	5.61
Slaughtering and meat packing..	Mar. 1942	2.47	.32	5.89	1.12	9.80	5.65	3.26	8.91
	Feb. 1942	2.31	.31	10.19	1.05	13.86	4.56	2.49	7.05
	Mar. 1941	.96	.13	4.53	.79	6.41	5.70	2.77	8.47
Stamped and enameled ware....	Mar. 1942	3.36	.41	2.51	.92	7.20	2.21	5.71	7.92
	Feb. 1942	3.97	.38	3.43	.91	8.69	1.32	4.85	6.17
	Mar. 1941	2.41	.26	.38	.66	3.71	1.67	5.76	7.43
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus.	Mar. 1942	3.68	.43	.66	.96	5.73	1.01	4.79	5.80
	Feb. 1942	2.16	.34	.96	.78	4.24	.42	3.60	4.02
	Mar. 1941	2.49	.33	.25	.63	3.70	.25	4.99	5.24
Stoves.....	Mar. 1942	3.99	.32	1.81	.56	6.68	1.88	3.31	5.19
	Feb. 1942	3.72	.21	3.62	.60	8.15	1.76	2.77	4.53
	Mar. 1941	2.44	.21	.93	.69	4.27	4.45	7.33	11.78
Structural and ornamental metal-work.	Mar. 1942	3.31	.73	1.27	.75	6.06	1.14	8.13	9.27
	Feb. 1942	1.91	.38	1.39	.64	4.32	.39	5.97	6.36
	Mar. 1941	1.70	.11	1.64	.31	3.76	.80	3.94	4.74
Textile machinery.....	Mar. 1942	3.29	.28	.49	.86	4.92	.40	4.63	5.03
	Feb. 1942	2.83	.21	.29	.93	4.26	.23	4.82	5.05
	Mar. 1941	1.53	.18	.39	.46	2.56	.25	6.4	6.69
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).	Mar. 1942	3.44	.53	.41	.67	5.05	.39	5.61	6.00
	Feb. 1942	2.90	.53	.47	.79	4.69	.64	4.45	5.09
	Mar. 1941	2.37	.39	.25	.35	3.36	.51	6.31	6.82
Woolen and worsted goods.....	Mar. 1942	3.39	.18	1.29	.57	5.43	1.50	3.89	5.39
	Feb. 1942	2.73	.16	2.52	.67	6.08	1.13	2.52	3.65
	Mar. 1941	2.09	.18	.96	.45	3.68	1.03	3.65	4.68

In table 3 are given the quit rates for strategic war industries for which the publication of turn-over data has been restricted. In only 3 of the industries were the quit rates above the rate for all manufacturing combined (3.02). In some localities the rapid expansion in the production schedules of these industries has resulted in inadequate housing and transportation facilities, a condition which has without doubt been an important factor in the rise of the rate for voluntary separations.

TABLE 3.—Monthly Quit Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected War Industries

Industry	Quit rates		
	1942 March	1942 February	1941 March
Aircraft.....	3.70	2.68	2.28
Aluminum.....	3.07	1.91	1.54
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	3.02	2.45	2.06
Electrical machinery.....	1.88	1.78	1.19
Engines and turbines.....	1.72	1.55	4.38
Machine tools.....	2.75	2.23	1.85
Shipbuilding.....	4.27	3.27	2.00

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, APRIL 1942¹

REDUCTIONS in the volume of both Federal and non-Federal building construction resulted in a 32-percent decrease in building permit valuations in April 1942, as compared with the same month of last year. Lower valuations in New York City contributed materially to the 40-percent decrease in new nonresidential construction; for all other reporting cities combined there was a slight increase in this type of construction. Permit valuations for new residential construction throughout the country declined 29 percent, and for additions, alterations, and repairs, 19 percent.

April permit valuations also showed a contraseasonal decrease of 12 percent from the March total. The major loss was in Federal contracts for new nonresidential construction which offset a small increase in permit valuations for privately financed buildings of this type and resulted in a net decrease for all nonresidential construction of 37 percent. On the other hand, Federal contracts for housing for war workers were wholly responsible for the 11-percent rise in permit valuations for new residential construction. The effect of the War Production Board order halting nonessential construction, which was issued on April 9, is reflected in the 14-percent decrease in permit valuations for privately-financed housing.

Comparison of April 1942 with April 1941 and March 1942

The volume of building construction in 2,364 identical cities with a population of 500 and over, which reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in March and April 1942 and April 1941, is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,364 Identical Cities, April 1942

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	April 1942	Percentage change from—		April 1942	Percentage change from—	
		March 1942	April 1941		March 1942	April 1941
All construction.....	74, 932	+22. 4	—20. 1	\$201, 914, 366	—12. 2	—31. 8
New residential.....	25, 083	+8. 8	—26. 1	110, 000, 237	+10. 6	—29. 0
New nonresidential.....	11, 167	+38. 1	—27. 3	64, 393, 941	—37. 1	—39. 8
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	38, 682	+28. 6	—13. 0	27, 430, 188	—2. 5	—19. 1

¹More detailed information by geographic divisions and population groups is contained in a separate mimeographed release entitled "Building Construction, April 1942," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

The number of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and the permit valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction in the 2,364 cities reporting in April 1942 are presented in table 2. Percentage changes between April 1941 and March 1942 and April 1941 are also shown.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,364 Identical Cities, April 1942, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Permit valuation		
	April 1942	Percentage change from—		April 1942	Percentage change from—	
		March 1942	April 1941		March 1942	April 1941
All dwellings.....	33,096	+18.6	-19.7	\$108,892,437	+10.9	-28.9
Privately financed.....	23,602	-7.3	-29.1	76,518,855	-14.0	-40.5
1-family.....	15,584	-20.8	-40.4	55,572,761	-23.7	-48.7
2-family ¹	2,745	+54.1	+30.0	6,900,399	+23.1	+24.9
Multifamily ¹	5,273	+27.8	+4.6	14,045,695	+32.5	-4.6
Publicly financed.....	9,494	+285.6	+19.7	32,373,582	+253.5	+31.4

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 4 Months of 1941 and 1942

Permit valuations reported in the first 4 months of 1941 and 1942 are compared in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, First 4 Months of 1941 and 1942, by Class of Construction¹*

Class of construction	Permit valuation		
	First 4 months of—		Percentage change
	1942	1941	
All construction.....	\$826,131,158	\$897,476,781	-8.0
New residential.....	391,166,607	454,034,506	-13.8
New nonresidential.....	332,190,926	333,183,014	-.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	102,773,625	110,259,261	-6.8

¹ Based on reports from cities with a population of 500 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.

The number and permit valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued in the first 4 months of 1942 are compared with similar data for the corresponding months of 1941 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units, First 4 Months of 1941 and 1942, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwellings¹

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units		Permit valuation			
	First 4 months of—		Per- cent- age change	First 4 months of—		Per- cent- age change
	1942	1941		1942	1941	
All dwellings.....	113,961	122,605	— 7.1	\$387,365,388	\$449,230,146	—13.8
Privately financed.....	85,627	102,957	² —17.8	287,118,143	387,077,617	—25.8
1-family.....	61,567	76,830	—19.9	227,567,512	312,561,406	—27.2
2-family ³	6,965	6,782	+ 2.7	17,589,041	17,159,049	+ 2.5
Multifamily ⁴	17,095	19,345	² —16.7	41,961,590	57,357,162	—26.8
Publicly financed.....	28,334	19,648	³ +49.2	100,247,245	62,152,529	+61.3

¹ Based on reports from cities with a population of 500 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.

² Revised.

³ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

⁴ Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, April 1942

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during March and April 1942 and April 1941 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is shown in table 5. This table includes other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside the 2,364 reporting cities.

TABLE 5.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed From Federal Funds, March and April 1942 and April 1941¹

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	April 1942	March 1942 ²	April 1941 ²
Total.....	\$355,095,419	\$1,513,610,663	\$356,799,275
War Public Works.....	6,759,400	11,978,100	(³)
Federal agency projects under the WPA.....	0	0	200,291
Regular Federal appropriations ⁴	304,963,480	1,483,436,316	314,525,906
Federal Public Housing Authority ⁵	43,372,539	18,196,247	⁶ 42,073,078

¹ Preliminary; subject to revision.

² Revised.

³ Program not started until October 1941.

⁴ Exclusive of contracts awarded for public housing.

⁵ Includes contracts awarded for all public housing projects.

⁶ Includes \$27,152,022 for contracts awarded on USHA projects and \$14,921,056 for contracts awarded from regular Federal appropriations.

The value of all contracts awarded for public buildings and highway construction to be financed wholly from State funds, as reported by the State governments for March and April 1942 and April 1941, was as follows:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
April 1942.....	\$426,376	\$5,940,339
March 1942.....	696,273	7,967,464
April 1941.....	1,910,054	11,001,489

Coverage of Building Permit Statistics

Building-permit data are collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where State departments of labor collect and forward the data to the Bureau. Reports are obtained each month from more than 2,500 places having a population of 500 or more in 1940, from which are selected those for cities which also reported in the preceding month and in the corresponding month of the previous year. The resulting tabulations of identical cities cover practically all cities with a population of 50,000 or more; the completeness of the coverage of cities in the remaining population groups decreases with the size of city.

In addition, the Bureau receives notifications of the value of construction contracts awarded by Federal and State Governments. Federal and State building construction in the 2,364 reporting cities totaled \$58,934,000 in April 1942, as contrasted with \$78,367,000 in the previous month and \$84,449,000 in April 1941.

The permit-valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective builders when applying for permits to build, in the case of privately financed construction, and the value of contracts awarded, in the case of construction financed with Federal or State funds. No land costs are included. Only building construction within the corporate limits of the reporting cities is included in the tabulations.

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN APRIL 1942

RETAIL costs of food advanced 0.8 percent between March 17 and April 14, 1942, as prices of many foods continued to rise. Advances were larger than those usual at this season for fresh pork, fresh fruits, and onions, and substantial increases were also reported for beef, potatoes, and coffee. Fresh milk and vegetables, such as green beans and carrots, were seasonally lower while exceptionally large supplies of oranges and lettuce resulted in contraseasonal price declines.

By the end of April, preliminary reports indicated further advances for beef, pork, canned salmon, butter, canned tomatoes, and lard.

The percentage change in retail costs of food on April 14, 1942, compared with costs 1 month ago, 1 year ago, and in August 1939 before the outbreak of the war in Europe, is presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Changes in Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups

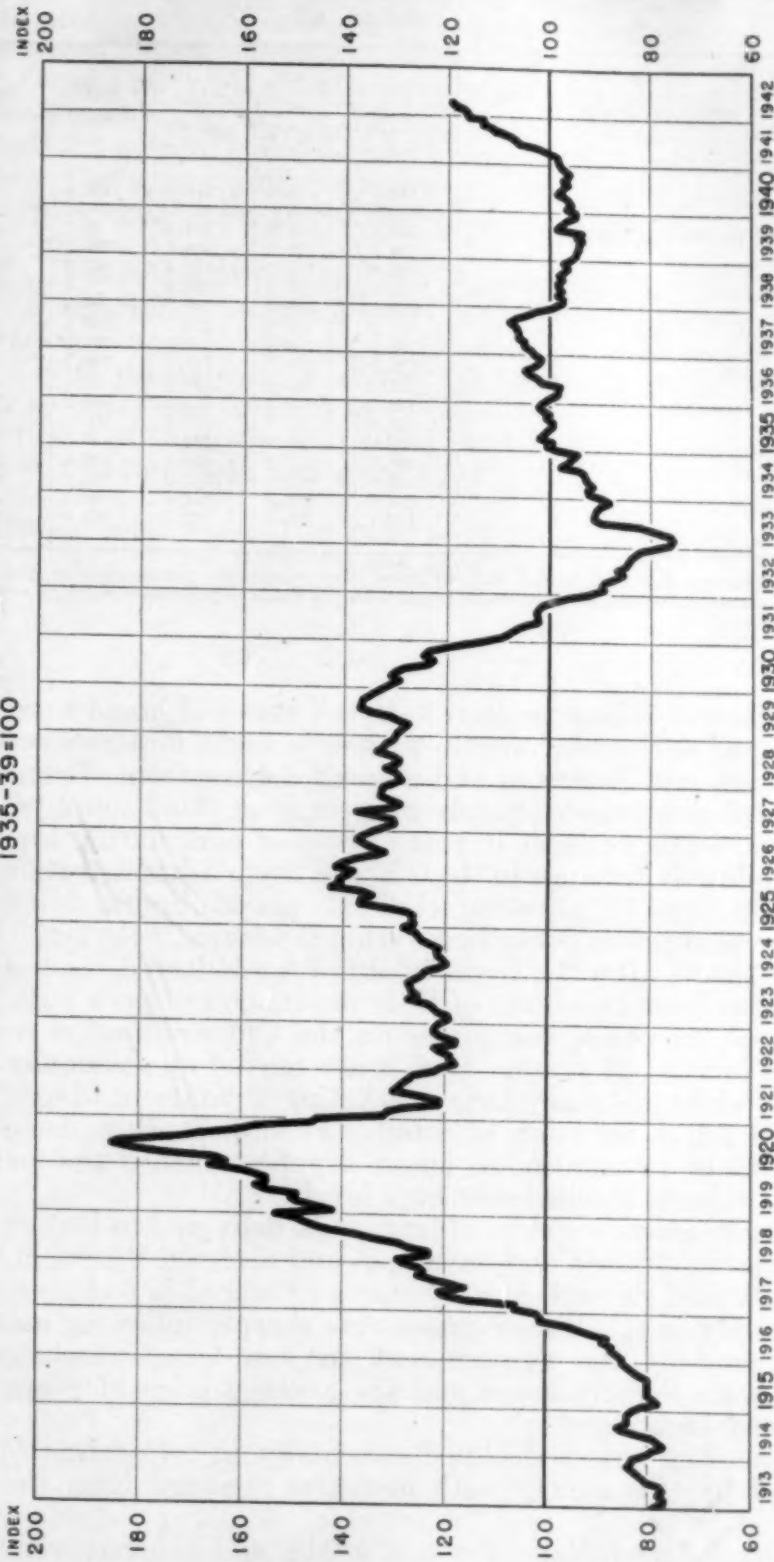
Commodity group	Percent of change April 14, 1942, compared with—			Commodity group	Percent of change April 14, 1942, compared with—		
	Mar. 17, 1942	Apr. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939		Mar. 17, 1942	Apr. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
All foods.....	+0.8	+18.9	+27.9	Dairy products.....	+0.5	+15.1	+31.4
Cereals and bakery products.....	+3	+10.4	+12.5	Eggs.....	-.7	+21.0	+22.7
Meats.....	+8	+17.4	+27.0	Fruits and vegetables.....	+1.8	+24.9	+35.9
Beef and veal.....	+8	+10.9	+21.1	Fresh.....	+2.0	+23.1	+36.0
Pork.....	+2.6	+30.8	+36.9	Canned.....	+1.0	+31.0	+33.2
Lamb.....	-.6	+8.2	+0.3	Dried.....	+2.1	+30.6	+44.6
Chickens.....	0	+8.1	+18.6	Beverages.....	+2.6	+29.2	+29.3
Fish, fresh and canned.....	-1.3	+30.7	+57.4	Fats and oils.....	+2.6	+40.8	+41.8
				Sugar.....	-.3	+22.5	+34.0

Details by Commodity Groups

Indexes of retail costs of food by commodity groups are presented in table 2 for February, March, and April 1942, April 1941, August 1939 (immediately before the outbreak of war in Europe) and for April 1929. The accompanying charts show the trend in the costs of all foods January 1913 to April 1942, inclusive, and for each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to April 1942, inclusive.

Among the 54 foods included in the index, prices of 33 were higher in April 1942 than in March; prices of 14 were lower; and for 7 there was no change. Average prices of 50 of these foods were higher on April 14 than they were a year ago and fresh green beans, lettuce, cabbage, and sweet potatoes were lower.

RETAIL COST OF ALL FOODS AVERAGE FOR 51 LARGE CITIES 1935-39=100



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, in Specified Months*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1942			1941	1939	1929
	Apr. 14 ²	Mar. 17	Feb. 17	Apr. 15	Aug. 15	Apr. 15
All foods.....	119.6	118.6	116.8	100.6	93.5	127.7
Cereals and bakery products.....	105.1	104.8	104.3	95.2	93.4	107.6
Meats.....	121.5	120.5	118.5	103.5	95.7	126.7
Beef and veal.....	120.6	119.7	119.9	108.7	99.6	(³)
Pork.....	120.5	117.5	110.9	92.1	88.0	(³)
Lamb.....	108.0	108.7	109.2	99.8	98.8	(³)
Chickens.....	112.2	112.2	110.7	103.8	94.6	(³)
Fish, fresh and canned.....	156.8	158.9	157.7	120.0	99.6	(³)
Dairy products.....	122.3	121.7	121.8	106.3	93.1	131.0
Eggs.....	111.3	112.1	119.0	92.0	90.7	108.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	125.6	⁴ 123.4	117.7	100.6	92.4	149.9
Fresh.....	126.2	⁴ 123.7	117.9	102.5	92.8	150.6
Canned.....	122.0	120.8	114.6	93.1	91.6	125.0
Dried.....	130.6	127.9	125.4	100.0	90.3	167.6
Beverages.....	122.7	119.6	117.2	95.0	94.9	166.2
Fats and oils.....	119.8	116.8	114.0	85.1	84.5	128.0
Sugar.....	128.1	128.5	127.7	104.6	95.6	111.6

¹ Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

³ Not available.

⁴ Revised.

Cereals and bakery products.—Retail prices of bread were practically unchanged during the month, with only slight increases reported from New York and Scranton and a small decline from Richmond. Rice continued to advance sharply as a result of short supplies.

Meats.—The advance in retail prices of pork during the last half of April followed a change in the Office of Price Administration regulation issued on April 15, affecting wholesale prices of pork, fixing the selling price level at prices prevailing during the period February 16-20, 1942. By mid-April, after the Department of Agriculture's request to packers to offer at least two-fifths of their production of pork cuts for sale for lend-lease purposes, hog prices on the Chicago market reached their highest level in 16 years. Beef prices moved up seasonally during the month, while unusually large marketing of lambs in March resulted in reduced prices for lamb at retail. Fresh-fish prices declined for the first time in 11 months, as larger supplies reached the market, while canned salmon reached new high levels.

Dairy products.—Prices of fresh milk delivered to homes rose 1 cent per quart in Atlanta and Savannah and declined ½ cent in New York, and milk sold through grocery stores advanced in 5 cities and declined moderately in 8. Butter prices rose sharply following an advance in prices paid by the Government in lend-lease purchases. Cheese prices were slightly lower and the average price of evaporated milk remained unchanged.

Eggs.—Egg prices declined seasonally in two-thirds of the cities covered by this survey, with increases reported from the remaining cities.

Fruits and vegetables.—Prices of apples and bananas were up sharply as compared with March—apples because of a seasonal advance, and bananas because of continued shipping difficulties. Orange prices

declined as Florida Valencias reached the market in large volume by mid-April. Fresh-vegetable prices were generally lower as large supplies became available, although continued shortages of onions and potatoes resulted in moderate to sharp increases. Prices of canned and dried fruits and vegetables were still moving upward, with the greatest increases reported for canned green beans (2.9 percent), dried prunes (2.5 percent), and canned pineapple (1.5 percent).

Beverages.—Coffee, tea, and cocoa prices advanced in nearly every city, as shipping difficulties and widespread war conditions continued to shorten supplies.

Fats and oils.—Prices of fats and oils also showed the effects of the war with increases reported for all items in the group. Peanut butter, in particular, advanced sharply by 11.5 percent.

Sugar.—Sugar prices were relatively steady with slight increases reported in 16 cities and declines in 15 cities.

Average prices of 65 foods in 51 cities combined are shown in table 3 for April and March 1942 and April 1941.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and April 1942 and April 1941

Article	1942		1941
	Apr. 14 ¹	Mar. 17	Apr. 15
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds.....	52.5	51.9	43.1
Macaroni.....pound.....	14.3	14.2	13.8
Wheat cereal ²28-oz. pkg.....	24.1	24.1	23.4
Corn flakes.....8 ounces.....	7.2	³ 7.3	7.1
Corn meal.....pound.....	4.7	4.7	4.3
Rice ³do.....	12.2	11.9	8.3
Rollled oats ³do.....	8.6	³ 8.4	7.1
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....do.....	8.7	8.7	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.5	9.5	8.8
Bread, rye.....do.....	9.7	9.6	9.0
Vanilla cookies.....do.....	27.1	27.1	25.3
Soda crackers.....do.....	16.5	16.4	14.6
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....do.....	42.6	42.0	38.0
Rib roast.....do.....	33.0	32.8	31.2
Chuck roast.....do.....	28.5	28.6	24.9
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do.....	52.4	52.2	45.3
Pork:			
Chops.....do.....	42.0	40.0	30.9
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	38.6	38.4	32.6
Ham, sliced ²do.....	58.2	57.7	46.6
Ham, whole.....do.....	37.2	37.0	28.1
Salt pork.....do.....	23.5	22.8	18.1
Lamb:			
Leg.....do.....	30.8	31.4	27.9
Rib chops.....do.....	37.7	37.5	35.5
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens.....do.....	35.7	35.7	33.2
Fish:			
Fresh, frozen.....do.....	⁽¹⁾	⁽¹⁾	⁽¹⁾
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can.....	21.6	21.4	16.5
Salmon, red ¹do.....	39.7	39.2	27.2
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound.....	43.6	42.2	39.5
Cheese.....do.....	34.5	34.9	27.0
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart.....	15.0	15.1	13.0
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	13.5	13.6	12.0
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ²do.....	14.5	14.6	12.7
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can.....	8.8	8.8	7.1
Eggs.....dozen.....	39.4	39.7	32.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and April 1942 and April 1941—Continued

Article	1942		1941
	Apr. 14 ¹	Mar. 17	Apr. 15
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound.....	Cents 6.8	Cents 6.2	Cents 5.6
Bananas.....do.....	11.0	9.8	7.3
Oranges.....dozen.....	28.4	28.9	27.7
Grapefruit ²each.....	5.1	4.8	(³)
Beans, green.....pound.....	16.3	21.3	16.5
Cabbage.....do.....	4.0	4.1	5.2
Carrots.....bunch.....	6.2	6.6	5.3
Lettuce.....head.....	8.4	9.8	9.4
Onions.....pound.....	9.5	7.6	4.9
Potatoes.....15 pounds.....	49.6	⁴ 48.1	31.8
Spinach.....pound.....	6.8	7.0	6.7
Sweetpotatoes.....do.....	5.1	5.0	5.4
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can.....	23.3	⁴ 23.0	16.6
Pineapple.....do.....	26.7	26.3	21.0
Grapefruit juice ²No. 2 can.....	10.1	9.9	(³)
Beans, green ²do.....	14.0	13.6	10.4
Corn.....do.....	12.9	12.8	11.0
Peas.....do.....	15.7	15.6	13.4
Tomatoes.....do.....	12.0	11.9	8.5
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound.....	12.1	11.8	9.4
Navy beans.....do.....	9.0	9.0	6.6
Beverages:			
Coffee.....do.....	28.6	27.9	21.9
Tea.....¼ pound.....	21.8	21.3	17.7
Cocon ²8-oz. can.....	10.1	10.0	9.1
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound.....	17.0	16.6	11.1
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do.....	19.5	19.3	12.0
In other containers.....do.....	25.6	25.2	18.7
Salad dressing.....pint.....	25.2	24.7	20.1
Oleomargarine.....pound.....	22.3	22.0	15.7
Peanut butter.....do.....	26.1	23.4	17.8
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar.....do.....	6.9	6.9	5.6
Corn sirup ²24 ounces.....	14.6	14.4	13.6
Molasses ²18 ounces.....	14.4	14.2	13.4

¹ Preliminary.² Not included in index.³ Revised.⁴ Composite prices not computed.⁵ Priced first time on Oct. 14, 1941.

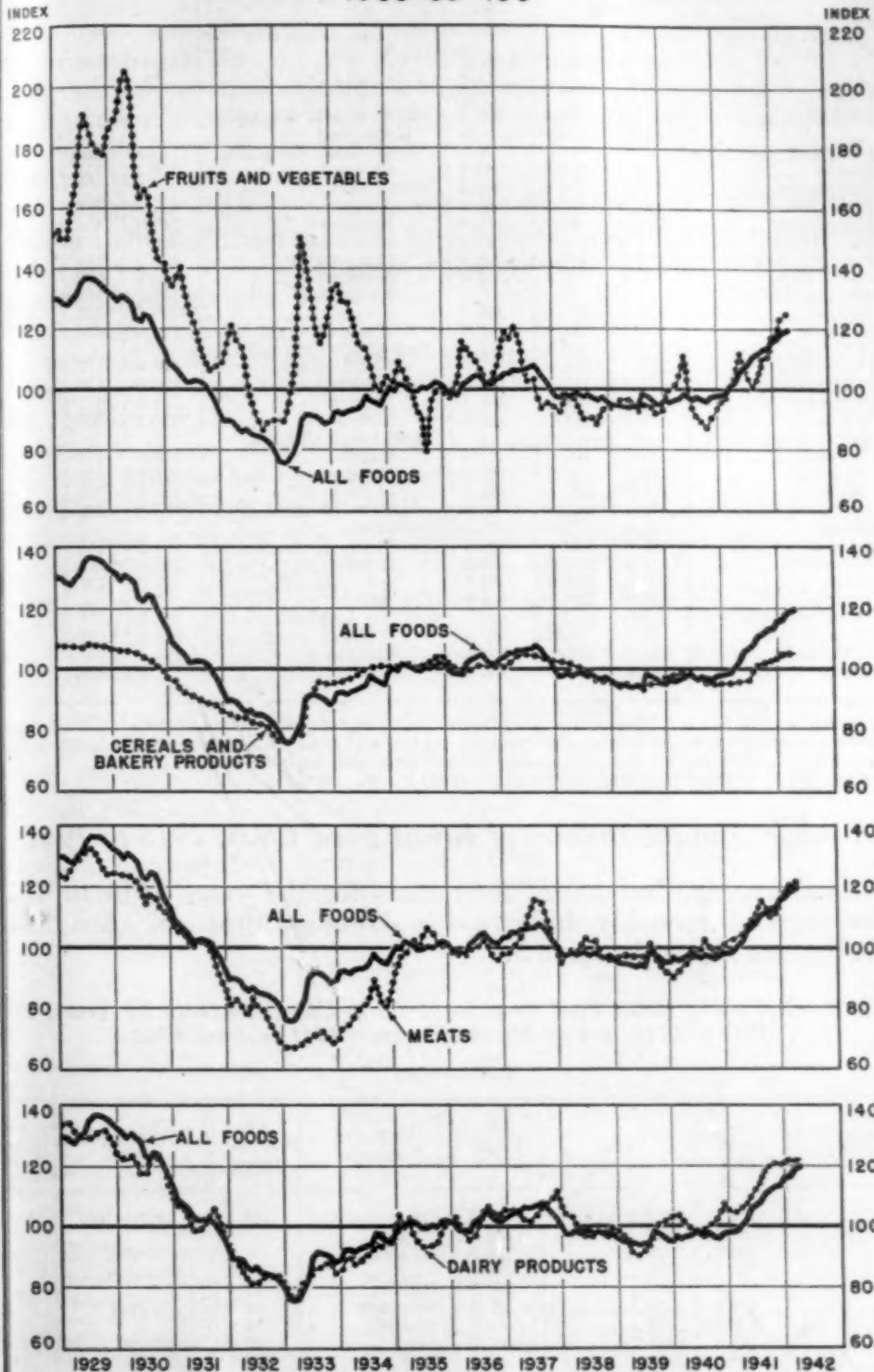
Details by Regions and Cities

Retail food costs advanced in 43 cities, declined in 6, and were unchanged in 2 between March 17 and April 14. The largest increases were reported for Savannah (2.7 percent), Memphis and Little Rock (2.5 percent), and Charleston, S. C. (2.4 percent). Greater than average advances for fruits and vegetables were responsible for the higher costs in these 4 cities along with higher prices for milk and eggs in Savannah and eggs in Charleston and for sugar in Little Rock. A decrease in food costs amounting to 1.2 percent was reported for Mobile, and there were smaller declines for Washington, D. C.; Norfolk; Pittsburgh; Portland, Oreg.; and New Haven. Decreases or less than average increases for fruits and vegetables were responsible for the lower costs in these 5 cities. Compared with a year ago, food costs were higher by 25.6 percent in Springfield, Ill., 25.4 percent in Mobile, and 25.1 percent in Little Rock. The smallest advances in food costs during the year were in New York (14.8 percent) and Rochester (15.5 percent).

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 4 for April and March 1942 and April 1941.

RETAIL COST OF FOOD

1935-39 = 100



U.S. DEPT. OF LABOR - BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 4.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of all Foods, by Cities,¹ March and April 1942 and April 1941

[1935-39=100]

Region and city	1942		1941	Region and city	1942		1941
	Apr. 14 ²	Mar. 17	Apr. 15		Apr. 14 ²	Mar. 17	Apr. 15
United States.....	119.6	118.6	100.6	West North Central—Continued.			
New England:				St. Louis.....	123.8	122.9	101.4
Boston.....	115.3	115.3	98.3	St. Paul.....	116.3	115.2	99.6
Bridgeport.....	118.7	118.6	100.6	South Atlantic:			
Fall River.....	118.5	118.2	100.4	Atlanta.....	120.3	118.4	99.7
Manchester.....	119.5	118.7	99.5	Baltimore.....	123.6	123.0	101.5
New Haven.....	117.9	118.0	99.8	Charleston, S. C.....	122.7	119.8	98.2
Portland, Maine.....	117.6	117.1	98.6	Jacksonville.....	126.1	124.3	101.7
Providence.....	118.3	117.3	99.2	Norfolk.....	126.4	126.7	102.1
Middle Atlantic:				Richmond.....	119.2	118.4	97.9
Buffalo.....	122.4	121.5	103.2	Savannah.....	128.6	125.2	103.0
Newark.....	119.3	118.5	101.9	Washington, D. C.....	118.0	118.3	100.7
New York.....	116.6	116.5	101.6	East South Central:			
Philadelphia.....	117.5	115.5	97.0	Birmingham.....	118.9	117.8	97.0
Pittsburgh.....	117.7	117.8	101.1	Louisville.....	120.6	119.3	99.7
Rochester.....	119.1	118.4	103.1	Memphis.....	120.8	117.8	98.2
Scranton.....	118.5	117.6	100.4	Mobile.....	129.1	130.7	102.9
East North Central:				West South Central:			
Chicago.....	120.0	117.5	100.5	Dallas.....	116.0	115.6	95.7
Cincinnati.....	120.7	118.9	100.1	Houston.....	124.6	124.6	104.2
Cleveland.....	122.3	120.5	102.1	Little Rock.....	123.1	120.1	98.4
Columbus, Ohio.....	117.1	115.2	96.9	New Orleans.....	130.0	128.0	105.9
Detroit.....	121.0	118.6	101.3	Mountain:			
Indianapolis.....	122.8	120.8	101.1	Butte.....	119.1	118.3	101.3
Milwaukee.....	117.9	116.0	99.2	Denver.....	120.2	117.7	98.6
Peoria.....	126.0	123.6	103.5	Salt Lake City.....	120.7	120.0	101.0
Springfield, Ill.....	126.0	124.3	100.3	Pacific:			
West North Central:				Los Angeles.....	125.2	124.9	102.7
Kansas City.....	117.2	116.5	97.4	Portland, Oreg.....	129.6	129.7	105.5
Minneapolis.....	118.0	117.3	101.5	San Francisco.....	123.6	121.9	103.5
Omaha.....	117.9	116.5	100.4	Seattle.....	127.5	126.7	104.7

¹ Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

² Preliminary. ³ Includes Portsmouth and Newport News. ⁴ Revised.

Average Annual Indexes of Retail Food Costs, 1913 to 1941

Annual average indexes of food costs for the years 1913 to 1941, inclusive, and monthly indexes for January 1941 to April 1942, inclusive, are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Years, From 1913 to 1941, and by Months, January 1941 to April 1942

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913.....	79.9	1927.....	132.3	1941.....	105.5	1941—Con.	
1914.....	81.8	1928.....	130.8			November.....	113.1
1915.....	80.9	1929.....	132.5	1941		December.....	113.1
1916.....	90.8	1930.....	126.0				
1917.....	116.9	1931.....	103.9	January.....	97.8		
1918.....	134.4	1932.....	86.5	February.....	97.9	1942	
1919.....	149.8	1933.....	84.1	March.....	98.4		
1920.....	168.8	1934.....	93.7	April.....	100.6	January.....	116.2
1921.....	128.3	1935.....	100.4	May.....	102.1	February.....	116.8
1922.....	119.9	1936.....	101.3	June.....	105.9	March.....	118.6
1923.....	124.0	1937.....	105.3	July.....	106.7	April.....	119.6
1924.....	122.8	1938.....	97.8	August.....	108.0		
1925.....	132.9	1939.....	95.2	September.....	110.7		
1926.....	137.4	1940.....	96.6	October.....	111.6		

COAL PRICES IN MARCH 1942

RETAIL prices of bituminous coal and Pennsylvania anthracite advanced slightly between December 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, while western anthracite prices showed no change. The average increase of 0.2 percent for bituminous coal reflected minor price changes in all areas. Advances ranging from 0.5 percent for chestnut to 1.4 percent for buckwheat sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite reflected comparatively small price increases in cities where these are important domestic fuels.

Increases of about 7 percent for the year brought prices in March 1942 to a higher level than in any March since 1927 for bituminous coal, and since 1934 and 1932, respectively, for stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite. Average prices of pea and buckwheat sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite in March 1942 were 8.9 and 4.0 percent, respectively, above the level of March 1941, and were higher than at any time during the 5 years the Bureau has collected and published prices of these coals. Arkansas and New Mexico anthracite prices increased about 4 percent during the year, and Colorado anthracite showed no change.

Reports reaching the Bureau indicate a tendency for early storage of domestic coal for the coming winter season. Retail dealers are being urged to buy their supplies now, and many are requesting their customers to accept delivery of orders as early as possible. The opening of navigation on the Great Lakes this spring was earlier than usual and stocks accumulated on upper-lake docks were greater than in March 1941.

Average retail prices of coal, together with indexes for bituminous coal and Pennsylvania anthracite based on the 3-year period October 1922 through September 1925 as 100, are presented in table 6 for March 1942 and December and March 1941.

TABLE 6.—Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, March 1942 and December and March 1941

Kind of coal	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (October 1922-September 1925=100)			Percent of change Mar. 15, 1942, compared with—	
	1942		1941	1942		1941	Dec. 15, 1941	Mar. 15, 1941
	Mar. 15 ¹	Dec. 15	Mar. 15	Mar. 15 ¹	Dec. 15	Mar. 15		
Bituminous coal (35 cities), old series ² ..	\$9.52	\$9.50	\$8.88	96.7	96.5	90.3	+0.2	+7.1
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: ³								
Stove.....	12.42	12.35	11.63	88.2	87.7	82.7	+ .6	+6.7
Chestnut.....	12.48	12.43	11.66	88.9	88.5	83.0	+ .5	+7.1
Pea.....	10.56	10.48	9.70				+ .8	+8.9
Buckwheat.....	8.64	8.52	8.31				+1.4	+4.0
Western anthracite:								
Arkansas (6 cities).....	13.47	13.47	⁴ 12.89				0	+4.5
Colorado (1 city).....	15.81	15.81	15.81				0	0
New Mexico (1 city).....	24.72	24.72	23.86				0	+3.6

¹ Preliminary.

² Unweighted average. Weighted composite prices are in preparation.

³ Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

⁴ Revised.

Details by Kinds of Coal

Bituminous coal.—Retail prices of bituminous coal remained unchanged or advanced only a few cents between December 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, in most of the cities reporting to the Bureau. The greatest increases for low-volatile coal during the 3-month period were in the New England area, where prices advanced about 40 cents per ton in Boston and 50 cents in Fall River and Providence. Prices of all sizes of eastern high-volatile coal in Detroit and of western high-volatile coal in Seattle increased from 10 to 30 cents per ton, and in Denver pea and stoker prices of western high-volatile in March were about 20 cents higher than in December 1941.

Low-volatile coal prices were higher in March 1942 than a year earlier in all reporting cities except Philadelphia, where no change was reported. The increases for the year ranged from a few cents in Pittsburgh to \$1.75 per ton in Fall River, with the greatest advances occurring in the New England and East North Central areas. Prices increased more than \$1 per ton in Boston, Providence, and Portland, Maine, as well as in Fall River in the New England area. Increases in Detroit ranged from \$1.33 for egg size to \$1.60 for nut, and in most other cities of the East North Central area the increases for all sizes were from 50 cents to 80 cents per ton.

Price advances for the year for eastern high-volatile coals were greater than for western high-volatile coals. Most of the increases for eastern high-volatile ranged between 50 cents per ton and the \$1.38 to \$1.67 reported in Detroit. Increases for western high-volatile were generally less than 50 cents and none was greater than 75 cents, except in Houston and San Francisco where prices advanced \$1 per ton for one or more sizes, and in Seattle where all sizes increased from 95 cents to \$1.59 per ton.

Anthracite.—Pennsylvania anthracite prices in March showed no change for the preceding 3 months in most of the cities reporting on this coal. The price advances recorded were generally less than 10 cents per ton, with the greatest increase, 13 to 16 cents per ton, occurring in New York City. Compared with March 1941, stove, chestnut, and pea sizes were from 50 cents to \$1.55 higher in cities where these coals are important domestic fuels. Advances in retail prices of buckwheat during the year ranged from 10 cents to \$1.36.

Prices of western anthracite were unchanged during the 3-month period from December 1941 to March 1942. Arkansas anthracite prices reported by six cities were from 40 cents to \$1 higher in March 1942 than a year earlier. New Mexico anthracite in San Francisco advanced 86 cents during the year and Colorado anthracite in Denver showed no change.

ELECTRICITY¹ AND GAS²*Price Changes Between December 1941 and March 1942*

RESIDENTIAL rates are secured from 51 cities for electricity and from 50 cities for gas. These rates are used in the computation of monthly bills for the amounts of consumption which have been selected as representative of average use throughout the country.

Reports published for March, June, and September show only the price changes which occurred during the preceding 3 months. The December report presents price changes effective on December 15 and a record of changes for the year.

Electricity.—There were no changes in residential rates between December 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, in the 51 cities reporting to the Bureau.

Gas.—Changes in residential rates between December 15, 1941, and March 15, 1942, occurred in 4 of the 50 reporting cities. Costs of gas for domestic consumers increased in Portland, Maine, for manufactured gas and in Minneapolis for mixed manufactured and natural gas, and decreased in Mobile and New Orleans where natural gas is served.

In Portland, Maine, a decrease in the number of cubic feet covered by the initial charge increased costs of gas most to small users. The increases ranged from 8.3 percent for 10.6 therms, representing gas for cooking, to 0.4 percent for 40.6 therms, which covers the use of gas for refrigeration and automatic water heating in addition to cooking. In Minneapolis increases in rates for gas in excess of the 400 cubic feet included in the initial charge advanced costs from 1.1 percent for 10.6 therms to 1.8 percent for 40.6 therms.

Lower costs for gas in Mobile and New Orleans were due principally to rate reductions, although slight increases in the heating value of the gas contributed to the price decrease. Mobile discontinued the Objective Rate Schedule which included Present, Intermediate, and Objective rates, and the lower or Objective rate was made applicable for computing net monthly bills of all domestic consumers. Reductions for customers formerly billed under the Present rate were from 9.1 percent for 10.6 therms to 14.7 percent for 30.6 therms. Decreases of 0.5 percent or less for customers formerly billed under the Objective rate reflected the effect of the increased heating value of the gas served in the city. In New Orleans a new rate schedule reduced the cost of gas by from 5.8 percent for 10.6 therms to 18.5 percent for 40.6 therms, and provided refunds on all bills sent out on or after September 15, 1941.

¹ Average prices of electricity for 25, 40, and 100 kilowatt-hours for 1923 through 1938 are shown in Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 664.

² Average prices of gas for 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms for 1923 through June 1936 are shown in Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 628.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN APRIL 1942 ¹

THE general level of commodity prices in primary markets rose 1.1 percent in April over March, marking a 14-month period of uninterrupted increase. The Bureau of Labor Statistics comprehensive index of nearly 900 price series reached 98.7 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level since October 1926. Continued gains in prices for agricultural commodities largely accounted for the advance. In the preceding 12 months the index rose nearly 19 percent and is now more than 31 percent above the August 1939 average directly preceding the outbreak of war in Europe.

Foods—mostly fruits, vegetables, and meats—rose 2.7 percent during April, and hides and leather products—largely goatskins and sheepskins—advanced 2.1 percent. Farm products averaged 1.7 percent higher than in March as a result of pronounced increases in prices for livestock, while grains declined sharply. Textile products advanced more than 1 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.7 percent; and housefurnishing goods, 0.2 percent. Building materials declined 0.3 percent, while the indexes for fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, and chemicals and allied products remained unchanged at last month's level.

Prices for most commodities, except those on which early controls were established, have risen substantially since August 1939. Farm product prices have advanced more than 71 percent; foods and textile products, about 45 percent; hides and leather products and chemicals and allied products, approximately 30 percent; and building materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities, over 20 percent. Metals and metal products have risen 11 percent and fuel and lighting materials, 7 percent since August 1939.

A large part of the increase has occurred in the past year. In the period April 1941 to April 1942 farm product prices increased over 40 percent and foods and textile products, more than 20 percent. Increases for the remaining 7 groups ranged from 6 percent for metals and metal products to nearly 19 percent for chemicals and allied products.

Average prices for farm products in April reached the highest point since the autumn of 1929. Quotations for livestock—particularly

¹ During the period of rapid changes caused by price controls, materials allocation, and rationing, the Bureau of Labor Statistics will attempt promptly to report changing prices. Indexes, however, must be considered as preliminary and subject to such adjustment and revision as required by late and more complete reports.

cattle, hogs, and sheep—rose sharply, while calves and live poultry declined. Marked advances were also reported in prices for fresh fruits and vegetables, cotton, wool, hops, peanuts, and hay. The grain market weakened, with rye down nearly 9 percent and wheat about 5 percent. Barley, corn, and oats advanced, and cattle feed prices continued to rise.

An advance of over 11 percent for both fresh and processed fruits and vegetables, together with higher prices for meats and for butter, eggs, rice, canned salmon, lard, molasses, sugar, peanut butter, and jelly accounted for the increase of 2.7 percent in the foods group index. Prices were lower for cheese, milk, flour, cured beef in the New York market, and veal.

Shoes reflected earlier advances in prices for leather and rose 1.9 percent in April. Harness and luggage also advanced. The index for hides and skins rose 5.9 percent, as a result of sharp increases in prices for goatskins and sheepskins. The hide prices included in the index are regulated by the Office of Price Administration.

Higher prices were reported for men's clothing, underwear, and industrial cotton fabrics—such as denim, drills, osnaburg, print cloth, shirting, sheeting, ticking, and cordage. Quotations were also higher for certain woolen and worsted materials and yarns. Some house-furnishing goods—particularly pillow cases, sheets, window shades, and dinner sets—averaged slightly higher in April. Office furniture advanced about 5 percent during the month.

In the fuel and lighting materials group, seasonally lower prices of coal and declining prices of gasoline in the mid-continent and west-coast areas counterbalanced higher prices for Pennsylvania crude petroleum, kerosene, and Pennsylvania fuel oil, and the group index remained unchanged at the March level, 77.7 percent of the 1926 average.

Average prices for building materials dropped 0.3 percent, largely because of weakening prices for rosin, shellac, and turpentine and a tightening up of the southern pine lumber price schedule. Some types of lumber—particularly western pine, spruce, white oak, red cypress, and red cedar shingles—advanced. Brick and tile, chrome colors, linseed oil, plaster board, plaster, lime, and tar also averaged higher in April than in March.

During April prices of fatty acid advanced, as did soybean oil, ether, and naphthalene flake.

Percentage comparisons of the April 1942 level of wholesale prices with March 1942 and April 1941 and August 1939 with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, April 1942 with Comparisons for March 1942, April 1941, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	April 1942	March 1942	Per- cent of change	April 1941	Per- cent of change	August 1939	Per- cent of change
All commodities.....	198.7	97.6	+1.1	83.2	+18.6	75.0	+31.6
Farm products.....	104.5	102.8	+1.7	74.4	+40.5	61.0	+71.3
Grains.....	91.5	93.8	-2.5	70.9	+29.1	51.5	+77.7
Livestock and poultry.....	118.3	113.8	+4.0	86.2	+37.2	66.0	+79.2
Other farm products.....	99.0	97.9	+1.1	67.8	+46.0	60.1	+64.7
Foods.....	98.7	96.1	+2.7	77.9	+26.7	67.2	+46.9
Dairy products.....	94.1	94.3	-.2	81.0	+16.2	67.9	+38.6
Cereal products.....	90.2	90.6	-.4	76.8	+17.4	71.9	+25.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	97.7	87.7	+11.4	63.8	+53.1	58.5	+67.0
Meats.....	112.8	109.2	+3.3	85.6	+31.8	73.7	+53.1
Other foods.....	90.4	89.1	+1.5	73.9	+22.3	60.3	+49.9
Hides and leather products.....	119.2	116.7	+2.1	103.9	+14.7	92.7	+28.6
Shoes.....	126.7	124.3	+1.9	107.8	+17.5	100.8	+25.7
Hides and skins.....	123.5	116.6	+5.9	104.7	+18.0	77.2	+60.0
Leather.....	101.3	101.5	-.2	95.6	+6.0	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products.....	115.2	113.6	+1.4	100.5	+14.6	97.1	+18.6
Textile products.....	97.7	96.6	+1.1	81.0	+20.6	67.8	+44.1
Clothing.....	107.8	106.6	+1.1	88.7	+21.5	81.5	+32.3
Cotton goods.....	113.8	112.6	+1.1	86.8	+31.1	65.5	+73.7
Hosiery and underwear.....	70.6	69.8	+1.1	61.1	+15.5	61.5	+14.8
Rayon.....	30.3	30.3	0	29.5	+2.7	28.5	+6.3
Silk.....	(1)	(1)		48.3		44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods.....	111.0	108.7	+2.1	93.3	+19.0	75.5	+47.0
Other textile products.....	98.5	98.2	+3	89.3	+10.3	63.7	+54.6
Fuel and lighting materials.....	77.7	77.7	0	72.9	+6.6	72.6	+7.0
Anthracite.....	83.7	85.2	-1.8	80.9	+3.5	72.1	+16.1
Bituminous coal.....	108.2	108.4	-.2	100.0	+8.2	96.0	+12.7
Coke.....	122.1	122.1	0	113.8	+7.3	104.2	+17.2
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)		69.2		75.8	
Gas.....	(1)	77.1		78.1		86.7	
Petroleum and products.....	58.4	58.3	+2	51.9	+12.5	51.7	+13.0
Metals and metal products.....	1103.8	103.8	0	97.9	+6.0	93.2	+11.4
Agricultural implements.....	96.9	96.9	0	92.3	+5.0	93.5	+3.6
Farm machinery.....	98.0	98.0	0	93.5	+4.8	94.7	+3.5
Iron and steel.....	97.1	97.1	0	95.9	+1.3	95.1	+2.1
Motor vehicles.....	1112.8	112.7	+1	100.1	+12.7	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals.....	85.6	85.6	0	84.3	+1.5	74.6	+14.7
Plumbing and heating.....	98.5	98.2	+3	83.0	+18.7	79.3	+24.2
Building materials.....	110.2	110.5	-.3	100.1	+10.1	89.6	+23.0
Brick and tile.....	98.0	97.1	+9	91.7	+6.9	90.5	+8.3
Cement.....	94.1	93.6	+5	91.0	+3.4	91.3	+3.1
Lumber.....	131.8	133.1	-1.0	116.7	+12.9	90.1	+46.3
Paint and paint materials.....	100.6	100.8	-.2	88.7	+13.4	82.1	+22.5
Plumbing and heating.....	98.5	98.2	+3	83.0	+18.7	79.3	+24.2
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	103.8	103.8	0	95.9	+8.2	89.5	+16.0
Chemicals and allied products.....	97.1	97.1	0	81.8	+18.7	74.2	+30.9
Chemicals.....	96.4	96.4	0	86.4	+11.6	83.8	+15.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	126.7	126.5	+2	97.5	+29.9	77.1	+64.3
Fertilizer materials.....	79.2	79.5	-.4	71.0	+11.5	65.5	+20.9
Mixed fertilizers.....	82.8	82.8	0	73.2	+13.1	73.1	+13.3
Oils and fats.....	108.8	108.8	0	69.3	+57.0	40.6	+168.0
Housefurnishing goods.....	102.8	102.6	+2	90.4	+13.7	85.6	+20.1
Furnishings.....	108.0	107.7	+3	97.1	+11.2	90.0	+20.0
Furniture.....	97.5	97.4	+1	83.4	+16.9	81.1	+20.2
Miscellaneous.....	90.3	89.7	+7	78.6	+14.9	73.3	+23.2
Automobile tires and tubes.....	72.5	71.0	+2.1	58.8	+23.3	60.5	+19.8
Cattle feed.....	140.4	137.7	+2.0	85.2	+64.8	68.4	+105.3
Paper and pulp.....	102.9	102.9	0	94.5	+8.9	80.0	+28.6
Rubber, crude.....	46.3	46.3	0	47.6	-2.7	34.9	+32.7
Other miscellaneous.....	93.4	93.3	+1	84.3	+10.8	81.3	+14.9
Raw materials.....	100.0	98.2	+1.8	77.5	+29.0	66.5	+50.4
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.8	92.3	+5	85.1	+9.0	74.5	+24.6
Manufactured products.....	198.7	97.8	+9	85.5	+15.4	79.1	+24.8
All commodities other than farm products.....	197.2	96.2	+1.0	85.0	+14.4	77.9	+24.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	195.6	95.2	+4	85.9	+11.3	80.1	+19.4

1 Preliminary.

2 Data not yet available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to April 1942

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1941, inclusive, and by months from April 1941 to April 1942, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940.....	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941.....	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
By months:											
1941:											
April.....	74.4	77.9	103.9	81.0	72.9	97.9	100.1	81.8	90.4	78.6	83.2
May.....	76.4	79.5	106.4	83.0	75.6	98.1	100.4	83.6	91.4	79.6	84.9
June.....	82.1	83.1	107.8	84.5	77.9	98.3	101.0	83.8	93.1	80.6	87.1
July.....	85.8	84.7	109.4	86.2	78.5	98.5	103.1	85.2	94.4	82.0	88.8
August.....	87.4	87.2	110.2	88.3	79.0	98.6	105.5	86.0	95.4	83.7	90.3
September.....	91.0	89.5	111.3	89.7	79.2	98.6	106.4	87.4	97.2	85.1	91.8
October.....	90.0	88.9	112.6	90.9	79.6	103.1	107.3	89.7	99.5	86.4	92.4
November.....	90.6	89.3	114.1	91.1	78.8	103.3	107.5	89.8	100.6	87.3	92.5
December.....	94.7	90.5	114.8	91.8	78.4	103.3	107.8	91.3	101.1	87.6	93.6
1942:											
January.....	100.8	93.7	114.9	93.6	78.2	103.5	109.3	96.0	102.4	89.3	96.0
February.....	101.3	94.6	115.3	95.2	78.0	103.6	110.1	97.0	102.5	89.3	96.7
March.....	102.8	96.1	116.7	96.6	77.7	103.8	110.5	97.1	102.6	89.7	97.6
April.....	104.5	98.7	119.2	97.7	77.7	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.8	90.3	98.7

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in Serial No. R. 1434—Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1941.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:					
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939.....	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
1940.....	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941.....	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By months:					
1941:					
April.....	77.5	85.1	85.5	85.0	85.9
May.....	79.7	86.4	87.1	86.6	87.4
June.....	83.6	87.6	88.6	88.0	88.6
July.....	86.1	87.9	90.1	89.3	89.7
August.....	87.6	89.5	91.5	90.7	90.8
September.....	90.0	90.3	92.8	91.9	91.6
October.....	89.7	89.9	93.9	92.8	93.4
November.....	90.2	89.7	93.8	92.7	93.5
December.....	92.3	90.1	94.6	93.3	93.7
1942:					
January.....	96.1	91.7	96.4	94.8	94.6
February.....	97.0	92.0	97.0	95.5	94.9
March.....	98.2	92.3	97.8	96.2	95.2
April.....	100.0	92.8	98.7	97.2	95.6

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during March and April are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, March and April 1942

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Apr. 25	Apr. 18	Apr. 11	Apr. 4	Mar. 28	Mar. 21	Mar. 14	Mar. 7
All commodities.....	98.6	98.3	98.1	97.9	97.4	97.2	97.1	96.9
Farm products.....	104.8	105.2	104.6	104.2	103.4	103.1	102.3	101.5
Foods.....	99.6	98.6	97.0	97.2	95.9	95.5	95.8	95.8
Hides and leather products.....	119.8	119.8	119.8	118.1	117.6	116.6	116.4	116.4
Textile products.....	97.0	97.0	97.1	97.0	95.9	95.9	95.9	95.1
Fuel and lighting materials.....	78.5	78.1	77.9	78.3	78.1	78.2	78.2	78.5
Metals and metal products.....	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.8	103.7	103.7	103.7	103.7
Building materials.....	108.8	108.8	110.5	110.5	110.6	110.4	110.2	109.9
Chemicals and allied products.....	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1
Housefurnishing goods.....	104.4	104.4	104.3	104.3	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1
Miscellaneous.....	90.0	89.6	89.7	89.6	89.7	89.7	89.4	89.2
Raw materials.....	100.4	99.9	99.4	99.4	98.3	97.6	97.4	97.1
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.6	92.7	92.8	92.8	92.2	92.2	92.1	92.0
Manufactured products.....	98.9	98.6	98.5	98.2	97.9	97.9	97.9	97.7
All commodities other than farm products.....	97.3	96.9	96.7	96.6	96.1	95.9	95.9	95.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	95.6	95.5	95.6	95.6	95.3	95.3	95.2	95.1

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

SUMMARY OF REPORTS OF EMPLOYMENT FOR APRIL 1942

TOTAL civil nonagricultural employment stood at 40,804,000 in mid-April, a gain of 413,000 since mid-March. This total exceeded all previous April levels and was 2,576,000 greater than in April of last year. These figures do not include CCC enrollees or emergency workers on WPA or NYA projects, totaling 1,393,000, nor the armed forces.

Employment on contract construction showed a gain of 137,000 over the month interval, due largely to increases on Federal projects. All of the remaining major groups also showed substantial employment increases over the month with but two exceptions. The mining group reported no change from the March level, gains in quarrying and metal mining having offset decreases in coal mining and crude-petroleum production. In the trade group there was a net contraseasonal decline of 53,000, due in part to direct and indirect Government restrictions affecting the sale of automobiles, tires, electrical appliances, and other commodities.

Approximately one-half of the gain of nearly 2,600,000 civil non-agricultural workers over the year occurred in manufacturing industries. With but one exception (trade) all other major groups showed employment gains over April of last year. Substantial declines in the wholesale and retail automotive and the retail furniture groups contributed to the decline of 134,000 in trade employment over the year. All major retail groups except food reported fewer employees than in April 1941. The declines over the year in certain retail lines may be attributed in part to the fact that this year Easter shopping occurred too early to affect employment in those lines in the pay period ending nearest the fifteenth of April, while last year Easter buying was concentrated in the middle week of the month and accounted for a substantial March-April employment gain.

Emergency employment on work-relief programs showed the following decreases during April: WPA, 96,800; NYA student work program, 10,100; NYA out-of-school work program, 15,300; and CCC, 18,000.

Industrial and Business Employment

Increases in employment between mid-March and mid-April were reported by 77 of the 157 manufacturing and by 8 of the 16 non-manufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Pay-roll increases were reported by 88 of the manufacturing and 9 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

In factory employment as a whole there was an increase of 0.8 percent between March and April, which was about twice as large as the normally expected expansion. The corresponding increase of 2.1 percent in weekly pay rolls was in contrast to a typical decrease of about 1 percent for this month. The durable-goods group of manufacturing industries showed a gain of 1.6 percent in employment, while the nondurable-goods group reported a reduction of 0.2 percent.

Many industries, both durable and nondurable, continued to show employment declines as a result of shortages of materials and lay-offs, pending plant conversion to war production. Among such durable-goods industries were automobiles, hardware, plumbers' supplies, stamped and enameled ware, tin cans, business machines, jewelry, and silverware and plated ware. Sharp increases, however, in such important war industries as shipbuilding, aircraft, foundries and machine shops, engines, electrical machinery, and machine tools offset these declines sufficiently to cause a net gain in the durable-goods group and in all manufacturing industries combined. In the nondurable-goods group substantial seasonal increases were reported for the beverage, canning, ice cream, beet sugar, and butter industries, and smaller gains for cane-sugar refining and knitted outerwear. Contraseasonal gains were shown in cotton goods, silk and rayon, and woolen and worsted goods. Declines in other nondurable-goods industries, however—particularly cottonseed oil, cake, and meal; millinery; carpets and rugs; rubber goods; fertilizers; fur-felt hats; and hosiery—more than offset these gains to cause a net decline in the group as a whole.

Factory employment showed a gain of 11.0 percent since April of last year, while corresponding pay rolls showed an increase of 38.5 percent. As pointed out in preceding reports, factory pay rolls have advanced much more sharply than employment due to increased working hours in many industries, overtime premiums, and wage-rate increases.

Employment and pay rolls in anthracite mining declined 1.1 percent and 12.3 percent, respectively, over the month, the pay-roll decrease being due in part to the observance of holidays in the first half of April. Bituminous-coal mining employment fell only 0.5 percent and pay rolls increased 1.3 percent in contrast to normally expected declines of about 7 percent and 17 percent, respectively. Metal mining as a whole showed an employment increase of less than 1 percent and employment in quarrying and nonmetallic mining showed a less-than-seasonal increase. In crude-petroleum production employment declined slightly.

Employment on street railways and busses again showed an increase of about 1 percent, reflecting the demand for additional transportation facilities. Telephone and telegraph offices reported an employment increase of 0.6 percent, while electric light and power companies reported 0.5 percent fewer employees. Increases of a seasonal character were reported by hotels, laundries, private building construction, and dyeing and cleaning establishments. Both brokerage and insurance firms reported fewer employees.

Retail establishments reported a net contraseasonal decline of 0.5 percent in the number of workers, due primarily to reductions in the automotive and furniture groups, reflecting the effect of the war program on the sale of automobiles, tires, gasoline, electrical appliances, and radios. Wholesale firms reported a larger-than-seasonal employment decrease of 1.6 percent, due partially to reduced employment in the automotive and electrical groups.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment increase of 4.2 percent between March and April, the total number employed in April being 1,240,171. Corresponding pay-roll figures for April were not available when this report was prepared. For March they were \$231,467,281, an increase of \$22,295,169 from February. The increase in pay rolls was due in part to the February-March employment gain and in part to the fact that the March pay roll covered 31 days while the previous month's figure covered only 28 days.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 42.4 in April, a decrease of less than 0.1 percent since March. Corresponding average earnings were 81.9 cents, a gain of 1.2 percent over the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory wage earners (both full- and part-time combined) were \$36.63, an increase of 1.3 percent since March. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed, 8 reported increases in average weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 6 showed increases in average hours worked per week and 10 reported gains in average hourly earnings.

Wage-rate increases averaging 8.0 percent and affecting approximately 205,000 wage earners were reported by about 1,000 cooperating manufacturing establishments out of a reporting sample of approximately 34,000 plants employing about 8,000,000 wage earners. The wage-rate changes reported for nonmanufacturing industries were negligible. As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for March and April 1942 and April 1941 are given where available in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, selected nonmanufacturing industries, water transportation, and class I steam railroads.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, April and March 1942 and April 1941*

[Preliminary figures]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings		
	April 1942	March 1942	April 1941	April 1942	March 1942	April 1941	April 1942	March 1942	April 1941
All manufacturing industries combined.....	(1923-25=100)			(1923-25=100)					
	136.1	135.0	122.6	186.6	182.8	134.7	\$36.63	\$36.10	\$29.17
Class I steam railroads ¹	(1935-39=100)			(1935-39=100)					
	121.5	116.6	106.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Coal mining:	(1929=100)			(1929=100)					
Anthracite.....	47.9	48.5	48.7	44.7	50.9	24.3	30.58	34.45	16.43
Bituminous.....	93.3	93.8	23.5	118.4	116.9	15.5	33.82	33.20	17.63
Metalliferous mining.....	82.5	81.9	77.2	97.0	99.1	78.9	37.28	38.37	32.19
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	50.4	47.7	48.2	57.9	54.4	47.0	29.32	29.13	24.37
Crude-petroleum production.....	59.1	59.7	60.1	62.8	62.6	57.8	38.77	38.20	35.31
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph.....	91.0	90.5	83.2	122.0	121.8	107.3	32.77	32.91	31.64
Electric light and power.....	89.2	89.6	91.3	113.6	113.5	107.6	38.68	38.43	35.96
Street railways and busses.....	72.5	71.7	68.3	84.5	84.7	72.0	38.10	38.86	34.37
Trade:									
Wholesale.....	92.4	93.9	92.4	92.0	93.9	83.4	34.79	34.93	31.36
Retail.....	93.9	94.4	97.8	93.2	93.7	91.7	23.03	23.04	21.56
Hotels (year-round) ²	95.0	93.5	95.2	93.5	91.6	87.1	16.94	16.87	15.87
Laundries.....	110.2	107.9	104.9	108.4	104.3	95.8	20.52	20.16	18.98
Dyeing and cleaning.....	121.2	113.8	117.2	105.6	92.7	97.8	24.25	22.67	22.94
Brokerage ³	-3.5	-2.4	-10.2	-4.0	-2.1	-7.5	39.97	40.20	38.54
Insurance ⁴	-5	-1	+1.0	-8	-5	+5.7	38.23	38.33	37.34
Building construction ⁴	+5.4	+1.8	-6.6	+7.7	+5.4	+8.9	39.10	38.29	33.96
Water transportation ⁴	73.6	75.7	80.1	+13.5	+2.4	g28.9	(2)	(2)	(2)

¹ Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.² Not available.³ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.⁴ Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available. Percentage changes from March to April 1942, February to March 1942, and April 1941 to April 1942 substituted.⁵ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trades only. Pay-roll data included war bonuses and value of subsistence and lodging. Pay-roll indexes on 1929 base not available. Percentage changes from March to April 1942, February to March 1942, and April 1941 to April 1942 substituted.

Public Employment

Employment in the executive branch of the Federal Government exceeded the 2,000,000 mark during the month of April, with the addition of 10,300 persons inside the District of Columbia and 97,800 outside the District. Both employment and pay rolls increased 6 percent during the current month, but over the past year employment increased 63 percent and pay rolls 73 percent. The April pay rolls for the executive service amounted to \$327,119,000.

Employment in the judicial and legislative branches of the Government has increased at only a moderate rate—2 percent over the past month and 6 and 7 percent, respectively, over the past year.

Federally-financed construction showed a more than seasonal expansion during the month ending April 15, adding 177,000 workers and \$35,649,000 in pay rolls. These represented increases of 15 and 18 percent, respectively, over the preceding month, and of 63 and 93 percent, respectively, over the past year.

War construction, not including housing, required 88 percent of the employment and 89 percent of the pay rolls. A year ago, defense construction work required only 73 percent of the construction em-

ployment and 79 percent of the pay rolls. Expansion during April was concentrated mainly on the construction of cantonments, ordnance plants, air corps stations, new ships, airports, and streets and roads.

Nonwar construction, other than housing, showed slight increases in employment and pay rolls during the month of April, but aggregated only 124,000 employees and \$19,154,000 in pay rolls, less than 10 percent of the total construction requirements.

Public housing employment has declined steadily since July 1941, showing a net decrease of 42 percent from April a year ago—from 72,900 to 42,600 persons. The war public works program, which was inaugurated in October 1941 to construct schools, hospitals, waterworks, and sanitary and recreational facilities in war housing areas, has been rather slow in getting under way, as reflected in the employment data. During the month ending April 15, the additional 1,750 workers represented an increase over March of almost 100 percent.

In April, all Federally-financed construction employed 1,372,000 persons and paid out a total of \$234,328,000 in pay rolls. Fifteen percent of the employees (212,000 persons) were force-account workers who were directly employed by the Federal Government but whose period of employment will terminate at the completion of the project on which they are engaged.

The expansion of war industries has been accompanied by drastic contraction of work-relief projects. During April, WPA personnel declined 96,800 persons, and during the past year, 755,000. These represented decreases of 10 and 47 percent, respectively. The contraction has affected personnel on war projects of the WPA somewhat less than on others—4 percent during the past month and 33 percent during the past year.

The NYA dropped 10,100 persons from its student-work program and 15,300 persons from its out-of-school work program during April. Over the past year, NYA personnel has contracted over 50 percent: 242,000 persons on the student-work program and 217,000 on the out-of-school work program. Remaining NYA personnel in April numbered 446,000 and the April pay rolls amounted to \$6,810,000.

Personnel on the CCC program likewise dropped sharply during April, with the declines distributed among the different groups as follows: Enrollees, 18,000 persons, or 18 percent; nurses, 8, or 16 percent; educational advisers, 93, or 12 percent; supervisory and technical, 1,080, or 6 percent. Over the past year, total CCC personnel has declined 64 percent and total pay rolls 59 percent.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative, judicial, and force-account employees are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the respective offices, while data for the executive-service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds directly from the contractors and subcontractors, and for the work-relief programs from the respective agencies.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on construction and work-relief projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds, April 1941 and March and April 1942*

[Subject to revision]

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	April 1942	March 1942	April 1941	April 1942	March 1942	April 1941
Federal services:						
Executive ¹	2,034,242	1,926,074	1,251,283	\$327,118,679	\$309,764,679	\$189,213,464
Judicial	2,650	2,606	2,505	670,030	671,814	641,009
Legislative	6,457	6,339	6,015	1,379,536	1,368,606	1,320,148
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations ²	1,278,797	1,099,329	749,725	219,353,400	184,254,174	109,723,971
War	1,156,201	995,927	607,056	200,505,235	169,544,531	95,004,017
Other	122,596	103,402	142,669	18,848,165	14,709,643	14,719,954
Public housing ³	42,638	47,085	72,905	5,879,119	6,105,706	9,099,547
Financed by PWA	401	849	10,997	60,638	120,778	1,338,312
War Public Works	3,516	1,765	(⁴)	370,283	163,612	(⁴)
Financed by RFC ⁵	46,215	45,606	7,476	8,664,710	8,032,756	1,135,134
War	44,890	44,355	5,200	8,419,315	7,838,747	861,486
Other	1,325	1,251	2,276	245,395	194,009	273,648
Work Projects Administration projects	866,723	963,496	1,621,639	57,600,000	62,908,945	95,022,432
War	305,579	317,790	453,656	20,100,000	20,512,613	(⁶)
Other	561,144	645,706	1,167,983	37,500,000	42,396,332	(⁶)
National Youth Administration:						
Student-work program	238,000	248,094	480,419	1,647,705	1,681,148	3,369,480
Out-of-school work program	208,001	223,264	425,302	5,162,150	5,470,927	8,486,681
Civilian Conservation Corps	97,139	116,333	266,645	5,083,997	5,845,907	12,339,002

¹ Includes force-account employees also included under construction projects, and supervisory and technical employees also included under CCC.

² Includes ship construction.

³ Includes all Federal housing projects including those formerly under the United States Housing Authority.

⁴ Program not in operation.

⁵ Includes employees and pay roll of the RFC Mortgage Company.

⁶ Break-down not available.

DETAILED REPORTS OF EMPLOYMENT, MARCH 1942

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of nonagricultural employment by major groups are given in table 1. The figures for "total civil nonagricultural employment" and "civil employees in nonagricultural establishments" are based on the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers," shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations (less the number who were unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census) and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies. The estimates for the individual industry groups are based in large part on industrial censuses and on the above-mentioned regular reports of employers.

Estimates of "employees in nonagricultural establishments" by States are given each month in a mimeographed release on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups

[In thousands]

Employment groups	March 1942 (preliminary)	February 1942	Change February 1942 to March 1942	March 1941	Change March 1941 to March 1942
Total civil nonagricultural employment ¹	40,337	40,009	+328	37,761	+2,576
Civil employees in nonagricultural establishments ²	34,194	33,866	+328	31,618	+2,576
Manufacturing.....	12,823	12,724	+99	11,457	+1,366
Mining.....	859	860	-1	864	-5
Contract construction ³	1,747	1,645	+102	1,631	+116
Transportation and public utilities.....	3,274	3,250	+24	3,056	+218
Trade.....	6,707	6,686	+21	6,578	+129
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4,195	4,181	+14	4,097	+98
Federal, State, and local government.....	4,589	4,520	+69	3,935	+654

¹ Excludes employees on WPA and NYA projects and employees in CCC camps. Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants. Includes allowance for adjustment of factory and trade totals to preliminary 1939 Census figures.

² Excludes all of the groups omitted from "total civil nonagricultural employment" as well as proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

³ Includes employees of construction contractors only. Does not include "force account" construction workers, that is those employed directly by other classes of employers.

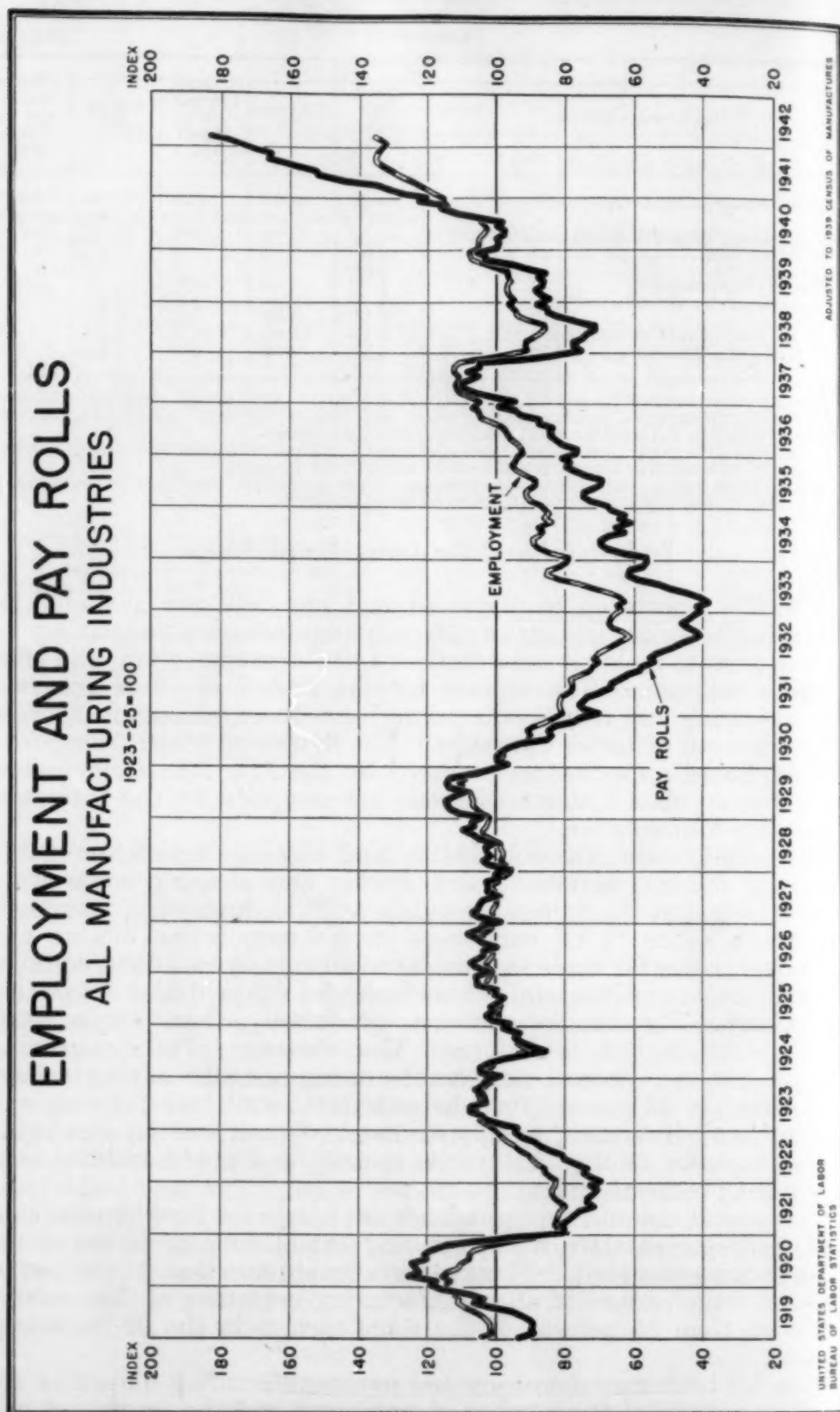
Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 157 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; water transportation; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities, and 90 percent for metal mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 of the 157 industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.



The average weekly earnings shown in table 2 are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for January, February, and March 1942, where available, are presented in table 2. The January and February figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports. Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 3 for 55 additional manufacturing industries for the months of January, February, and March 1942. These indexes are based on 1939 as 100 and are available in mimeographed form for the period from January 1939 to January 1941, inclusive.

In table 4 indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 non-manufacturing industries, by months, from March 1941 to March 1942, inclusive. The chart on page 1440 indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to March 1942.

TABLE 2.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100. For "all manufacturing," "durable goods," "nondurable goods," and "aluminum manufactures," they have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census figures. The indexes for all other manufacturing groups and industries have been adjusted to 1937 Census figures, except as otherwise noted, and are not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942
All manufacturing²	135.0	133.8	132.5	132.5	132.5	173.5	336.15	335.71	335.11	42.5	42.3	41.5	90.9	90.3	80.1
Durable goods³	147.4	145.1	143.3	143.3	143.3	204.3	42.00	41.52	40.51	44.7	44.4	43.7	89.9	89.3	88.9
Nondurable goods⁴	133.2	123.0	122.1	122.1	122.1	139.0	37.72	37.34	36.95	39.8	39.7	39.1	70.6	70.1	70.1
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	135.7	135.9	136.3	136.3	136.3	173.7	39.01	38.39	37.31	42.6	42.1	41.3	91.6	90.9	90.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	150.0	149.3	148.7	148.7	148.7	184.5	40.93	40.20	39.13	41.2	40.7	39.7	99.1	98.8	98.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	169.0	168.0	170.4	170.4	170.4	261.1	38.73	38.19	36.66	45.0	44.8	43.0	85.2	85.2	85.4
Cast-iron pipe	98.1	97.4	97.4	97.4	97.4	117.4	31.10	30.64	28.90	42.2	41.6	39.4	72.9	73.1	72.7
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	136.4	134.0	132.9	132.9	132.9	179.4	34.66	34.93	33.48	45.8	46.0	44.6	76.3	76.8	75.6
Forgings, iron and steel	125.0	123.0	120.6	120.6	120.6	159.9	48.50	47.53	46.95	48.1	48.0	47.8	100.0	99.4	98.4
Hardware	94.8	94.3	98.6	98.6	98.6	133.4	35.11	34.08	33.02	46.0	45.7	43.9	76.5	74.7	75.2
Plumbers' supplies	89.0	92.6	95.3	95.3	95.3	102.1	33.12	32.84	30.29	40.1	40.4	37.9	82.4	81.2	79.8
Stamped and enameled ware	211.5	209.2	213.4	213.4	213.4	299.6	34.13	33.58	32.28	43.8	43.5	42.3	78.5	77.5	76.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	123.2	123.1	122.0	122.0	122.0	168.6	41.85	40.90	41.23	46.4	46.0	46.5	90.4	89.0	88.9
Stoves	91.8	93.8	91.7	91.7	91.7	103.2	32.35	31.11	29.00	41.0	40.3	38.3	78.8	77.4	75.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork	110.4	107.2	105.7	105.7	105.7	133.5	40.66	39.96	38.07	45.3	44.9	43.6	90.4	89.5	87.5
Tin cans and other tinware	115.9	130.9	136.7	136.7	136.7	150.0	28.97	28.16	29.64	40.5	39.8	41.9	72.0	70.9	71.3
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	154.9	153.0	151.4	151.4	151.4	224.1	37.38	36.23	35.77	47.0	46.7	45.5	79.5	77.6	78.6
Wirework	161.3	160.4	184.0	184.0	184.0	242.1	35.41	34.88	35.15	43.9	43.3	43.6	80.8	80.7	80.7
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	194.0	189.7	185.0	185.0	185.0	294.8	43.90	43.06	42.55	47.9	47.3	47.1	91.4	90.6	89.9
Agricultural implements (including tractors) ⁵	169.1	166.2	164.1	164.1	164.1	228.8	40.69	39.82	38.28	42.7	42.5	41.4	95.4	94.0	92.8
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	176.7	177.7	175.0	175.0	175.0	259.6	46.12	45.49	44.45	47.0	47.1	46.4	98.4	97.6	97.0
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	41.52	41.10	40.68	45.8	45.6	45.4	90.6	90.3	89.8
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	55.11	52.89	55.04	49.2	48.4	50.0	113.0	110.1	111.0

Foundry and machine-shop products	1,827.8	1,848.0	1,829.1	1,827.0	1,816.9	2,111.2	82,593	81,433	81,897	81,081	83.0	84.0	85.0	86.0	87.0	88.0	89.0	90.0	91.0	92.0	93.0	94.0	95.0	96.0	97.0	98.0	99.0	100.0	101.0	102.0	103.0	104.0	105.0	106.0	107.0	108.0	109.0	110.0	111.0	112.0	113.0	114.0	115.0	116.0	117.0	118.0	119.0	120.0	121.0	122.0	123.0	124.0	125.0	126.0	127.0	128.0	129.0	130.0	131.0	132.0	133.0	134.0	135.0	136.0	137.0	138.0	139.0	140.0	141.0	142.0	143.0	144.0	145.0	146.0	147.0	148.0	149.0	150.0	151.0	152.0	153.0	154.0	155.0	156.0	157.0	158.0	159.0	160.0	161.0	162.0	163.0	164.0	165.0	166.0	167.0	168.0	169.0	170.0	171.0	172.0	173.0	174.0	175.0	176.0	177.0	178.0	179.0	180.0	181.0	182.0	183.0	184.0	185.0	186.0	187.0	188.0	189.0	190.0	191.0	192.0	193.0	194.0	195.0	196.0	197.0	198.0	199.0	200.0	201.0	202.0	203.0	204.0	205.0	206.0	207.0	208.0	209.0	210.0	211.0	212.0	213.0	214.0	215.0	216.0	217.0	218.0	219.0	220.0	221.0	222.0	223.0	224.0	225.0	226.0	227.0	228.0	229.0	230.0	231.0	232.0	233.0	234.0	235.0	236.0	237.0	238.0	239.0	240.0	241.0	242.0	243.0	244.0	245.0	246.0	247.0	248.0	249.0	250.0	251.0	252.0	253.0	254.0	255.0	256.0	257.0	258.0	259.0	260.0	261.0	262.0	263.0	264.0	265.0	266.0	267.0	268.0	269.0	270.0	271.0	272.0	273.0	274.0	275.0	276.0	277.0	278.0	279.0	280.0	281.0	282.0	283.0	284.0	285.0	286.0	287.0	288.0	289.0	290.0	291.0	292.0	293.0	294.0	295.0	296.0	297.0	298.0	299.0	300.0	301.0	302.0	303.0	304.0	305.0	306.0	307.0	308.0	309.0	310.0	311.0	312.0	313.0	314.0	315.0	316.0	317.0	318.0	319.0	320.0	321.0	322.0	323.0	324.0	325.0	326.0	327.0	328.0	329.0	330.0	331.0	332.0	333.0	334.0	335.0	336.0	337.0	338.0	339.0	340.0	341.0	342.0	343.0	344.0	345.0	346.0	347.0	348.0	349.0	350.0	351.0	352.0	353.0	354.0	355.0	356.0	357.0	358.0	359.0	360.0	361.0	362.0	363.0	364.0	365.0	366.0	367.0	368.0	369.0	370.0	371.0	372.0	373.0	374.0	375.0	376.0	377.0	378.0	379.0	380.0	381.0	382.0	383.0	384.0	385.0	386.0	387.0	388.0	389.0	390.0	391.0	392.0	393.0	394.0	395.0	396.0	397.0	398.0	399.0	400.0	401.0	402.0	403.0	404.0	405.0	406.0	407.0	408.0	409.0	410.0	411.0	412.0	413.0	414.0	415.0	416.0	417.0	418.0	419.0	420.0	421.0	422.0	423.0	424.0	425.0	426.0	427.0	428.0	429.0	430.0	431.0	432.0	433.0	434.0	435.0	436.0	437.0	438.0	439.0	440.0	441.0	442.0	443.0	444.0	445.0	446.0	447.0	448.0	449.0	450.0	451.0	452.0	453.0	454.0	455.0	456.0	457.0	458.0	459.0	460.0	461.0	462.0	463.0	464.0	465.0	466.0	467.0	468.0	469.0	470.0	471.0	472.0	473.0	474.0	475.0	476.0	477.0	478.0	479.0	480.0	481.0	482.0	483.0	484.0	485.0	486.0	487.0	488.0	489.0	490.0	491.0	492.0	493.0	494.0	495.0	496.0	497.0	498.0	499.0	500.0	501.0	502.0	503.0	504.0	505.0	506.0	507.0	508.0	509.0	510.0	511.0	512.0	513.0	514.0	515.0	516.0	517.0	518.0	519.0	520.0	521.0	522.0	523.0	524.0	525.0	526.0	527.0	528.0	529.0	530.0	531.0	532.0	533.0	534.0	535.0	536.0	537.0	538.0	539.0	540.0	541.0	542.0	543.0	544.0	545.0	546.0	547.0	548.0	549.0	550.0	551.0	552.0	553.0	554.0	555.0	556.0	557.0	558.0	559.0	560.0	561.0	562.0	563.0	564.0	565.0	566.0	567.0	568.0	569.0	570.0	571.0	572.0	573.0	574.0	575.0	576.0	577.0	578.0	579.0	580.0	581.0	582.0	583.0	584.0	585.0	586.0	587.0	588.0	589.0	590.0	591.0	592.0	593.0	594.0	595.0	596.0	597.0	598.0	599.0	600.0	601.0	602.0	603.0	604.0	605.0	606.0	607.0	608.0	609.0	610.0	611.0	612.0	613.0	614.0	615.0	616.0	617.0	618.0	619.0	620.0	621.0	622.0	623.0	624.0	625.0	626.0	627.0	628.0	629.0	630.0	631.0	632.0	633.0	634.0	635.0	636.0	637.0	638.0	639.0	640.0	641.0	642.0	643.0	644.0	645.0	646.0	647.0	648.0	649.0	650.0	651.0	652.0	653.0	654.0	655.0	656.0	657.0	658.0	659.0	660.0	661.0	662.0	663.0	664.0	665.0	666.0	667.0	668.0	669.0	670.0	671.0	672.0	673.0	674.0	675.0	676.0	677.0	678.0	679.0	680.0	681.0	682.0	683.0	684.0	685.0	686.0	687.0	688.0	689.0	690.0	691.0	692.0	693.0	694.0	695.0	696.0	697.0	698.0	699.0	700.0	701.0	702.0	703.0	704.0	705.0	706.0	707.0	708.0	709.0	710.0	711.0	712.0	713.0	714.0	715.0	716.0	717.0	718.0	719.0	720.0	721.0	722.0	723.0	724.0	725.0	726.0	727.0	728.0	729.0	730.0	731.0	732.0	733.0	734.0	735.0	736.0	737.0	738.0	739.0	740.0	741.0	742.0	743.0	744.0	745.0	746.0	747.0	748.0	749.0	750.0	751.0	752.0	753.0	754.0	755.0	756.0	757.0	758.0	759.0	760.0	761.0	762.0	763.0	764.0	765.0	766.0	767.0	768.0	769.0	770.0	771.0	772.0	773.0	774.0	775.0	776.0	777.0	778.0	779.0	780.0	781.0	782.0	783.0	784.0	785.0	786.0	787.0	788.0	789.0	790.0	791.0	792.0	793.0	794.0	795.0	796.0	797.0	798.0	799.0	800.0	801.0	802.0	803.0	804.0	805.0	806.0	807.0	808.0	809.0	810.0	811.0	812.0	813.0	814.0	815.0	816.0	817.0	818.0	819.0	820.0	821.0	822.0	823.0	824.0	825.0	826.0	827.0	828.0	829.0	830.0	831.0	832.0	833.0	834.0	835.0	836.0	837.0	838.0	839.0	840.0	841.0	842.0	843.0	844.0	845.0	846.0	847.0	848.0	849.0	850.0	851.0	852.0	853.0	854.0	855.0	856.0	857.0	858.0	859.0	860.0	861.0	862.0	863.0	864.0	865.0	866.0	867.0	868.0	869.0	870.0	871.0	872.0	873.0	874.0	875.0	876.0	877.0	878.0	879.0	880.0	881.0	882.0	883.0	884.0	885.0	886.0	887.0	888.0	889.0	890.0	891.0	892.0	893.0	894.0	895.0	896.0	897.0	898.0	899.0	900.0	901.0	902.0	903.0	904.0	905.0	906.0	907.0	908.0	909.0	910.0	911.0	912.0	913.0	914.0	915.0	916.0	917.0	918.0	919.0	920.0	921.0	922.0	923.0	924.0	925.0	926.0	927.0	928.0	929.0	930.0	931.0	932.0	933.0	934.0	935.0	936.0	937.0	938.0	939.0	940.0	941.0	942.0	943.0	944.0	945.0	946.0	947.0	948.0	949.0	950.0	951.0	952.0	953.0	954.0	955.0	956.0	957.0	958.0	959.0	960.0	961.0	962.0	963.0	964.0	965.0	966.0	967.0	968.0	969.0	970.0	971.0	972.0	973.0	974.0	975.0	976.0	977.0	978.0	979.0	980.0	981.0	982.0	983.0	984.0	985.0	986.0	987.0	988.0	989.0	990.0	991.0	992.0	993.0	994.0	995.0	996.0	997.0	998.0	999.0	1000.0
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See footnotes on p. 1446.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued*

{Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100. For "all manufacturing," "durable goods," "nondurable goods," and aluminum manufactures," they have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census figures. The indexes for all other manufacturing groups and industries have been adjusted to 1937 Census figures, except as otherwise noted, and are not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request}

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>															
Textiles and their products—Continued.															
Wearing apparel.....	127.7	126.4	119.7	130.1	125.4	107.8	24.31	23.44	21.59	37.4	36.6	34.4	63.3	62.9	62.0
Clothing, men's.....	123.5	121.7	117.6	123.3	117.2	107.8	25.47	24.45	23.34	38.0	37.0	35.1	66.6	66.1	66.3
Clothing, women's.....	169.5	168.4	156.3	162.5	158.8	127.6	25.71	25.29	22.02	37.1	36.4	33.5	65.4	65.4	62.8
Corsets and allied garments.....	116.8	116.7	110.0	139.6	136.6	136.1	22.54	22.15	20.57	39.9	39.4	37.5	56.2	55.7	54.7
Men's furnishings ¹	115.0	113.6	106.7	140.5	139.6	118.7	18.34	18.50	16.66	35.6	36.2	33.6	50.7	50.2	49.3
Millinery.....	86.2	83.8	70.8	82.7	75.6	51.0	20.29	27.54	21.98	34.4	34.2	29.5	73.5	71.0	68.1
Shirts and collars ¹	132.9	133.4	130.8	152.0	148.8	141.3	18.16	17.77	17.17	37.1	36.6	35.4	49.2	48.7	48.9
Leather and its manufactures.															
Boots and shoes.....	101.9	100.2	98.9	117.1	113.2	107.3	36.49	36.16	25.08	40.0	39.9	38.8	65.3	65.8	64.9
Leather.....	98.6	96.6	95.4	112.2	107.6	101.0	25.32	24.86	23.63	39.7	39.5	38.5	63.3	62.9	61.6
	97.6	97.3	96.1	123.7	122.3	119.2	31.76	31.67	31.27	41.0	41.1	40.6	78.1	77.5	77.1
Food and kindred products.															
Baking.....	131.6	133.5	135.4	150.6	150.7	154.7	39.10	38.59	39.08	40.7	40.5	40.8	72.3	71.8	71.8
Beverages.....	150.3	150.0	149.5	160.6	159.6	158.2	29.48	29.41	29.30	42.2	42.3	42.0	69.8	69.6	69.7
Butter.....	289.1	283.8	281.8	378.1	356.4	348.4	38.33	36.76	36.24	41.0	39.6	39.3	94.4	93.6	93.2
Canning and preserving.....	102.9	97.5	98.2	103.1	97.8	93.9	25.37	25.36	25.16	46.9	46.7	45.2	55.4	55.4	55.3
Confectionery.....	97.3	111.6	111.9	109.8	128.4	122.0	21.48	21.90	20.65	36.8	38.0	36.5	59.6	58.7	58.3
Flour.....	92.0	90.4	91.9	105.6	103.5	105.1	22.63	22.04	21.95	40.0	39.1	39.1	57.2	56.7	56.8
Ice cream.....	78.7	79.9	79.3	86.8	91.3	89.7	30.66	30.30	30.30	44.1	44.1	44.3	67.8	68.8	67.4
Slaughter and meat packing.....	71.5	69.0	69.7	69.2	66.7	64.7	32.83	32.69	31.49	46.2	44.8	44.3	70.1	69.6	69.6
Sugar, beet.....	134.0	137.8	143.8	159.7	162.6	182.3	31.04	30.70	33.02	39.2	39.0	41.6	79.1	78.6	79.1
Sugar refining, cane.....	41.6	42.7	72.1	56.1	55.3	77.7	35.28	33.90	28.21	40.2	38.2	37.2	91.8	93.4	76.7
	91.9	89.4	92.5	86.3	78.7	90.6	26.98	24.93	27.75	36.6	35.2	39.0	72.7	70.8	71.1
Tobacco manufactures.															
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	65.4	66.5	63.4	70.6	72.3	72.6	19.71	20.05	20.76	36.6	37.0	37.9	53.7	54.4	54.9
Cigars and cigarettes.....	52.3	54.7	55.4	70.3	70.4	73.1	21.71	20.84	21.35	36.6	35.7	36.8	59.7	58.8	58.4
	67.0	66.8	64.4	70.5	72.4	72.4	19.35	19.91	20.64	36.6	37.1	38.0	53.1	53.9	54.6
Paper and printing.															
Boxes, paper.....	121.9	123.3	124.7	134.8	135.3	136.6	33.75	33.47	33.34	40.1	40.0	40.1	86.2	85.4	85.2
Paper and pulp.....	133.7	135.2	137.0	176.4	177.3	179.1	26.18	26.17	26.14	40.5	40.6	40.7	65.0	64.8	64.5
Printing and publishing: ¹	129.7	129.6	129.5	175.7	174.4	171.9	33.50	33.31	32.82	43.6	43.6	43.3	76.9	76.6	76.0
Book and job.....	100.9	104.9	107.9	97.6	100.0	105.3	33.66	33.17	33.86	39.6	39.7	40.3	85.4	84.1	84.9
Newspapers and periodicals.....	115.0	114.5	115.3	113.9	113.3	113.1	40.16	40.14	39.79	36.2	36.1	35.8	109.7	108.9	108.6
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products¹															
Petroleum refining.....	130.3	129.6	129.6	158.6	158.6	158.6	42.57	42.46	41.09	40.7	40.6	40.3	93.9	93.1	93.8
Other than petroleum refining ¹	164.8	160.8	156.2	231.1	222.4	215.5	34.91	34.63	34.63	41.3	41.1	40.9	83.0	81.9	82.2
	109.5	109.2	109.2	125.0	125.0	125.0	30.40	30.09	30.18	41.0	41.1	41.3	96.0	95.0	94.9

Chemical, petroleum, and coal products^a
 Petroleum refining^a
 Other than petroleum refining^a
 Chemicals^a
 Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal
 Druggists' preparations^a
 Explosives^a
 Fertilizers^a
 Paints and varnishes^a
 Rayon and allied products^a
 Soap^a

Rubber products^a
 Rubber boots and shoes^a
 Rubber tires and inner tubes^a
 Rubber goods, other^a

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NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Coal mining:	Anthracite 12 13	48.5	48.8	49.0	51.0	49.6	39.4	\$34.43	\$33.23	\$26.31	34.6	33.8	27.0	Cents	98.9	99.0	97.0
	Bituminous 13	93.6	94.5	95.1	116.6	118.2	117.1	32.92	33.10	32.73	31.5	31.6	31.3	Cents	106.0	105.8	105.1
	Metaliferous mining 14	91.4	81.0	80.7	98.8	94.3	94.3	38.37	38.31	37.03	44.2	43.3	43.3	Cents	86.6	84.3	85.1
	Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	47.5	46.7	46.8	54.3	52.0	48.9	29.09	28.40	26.34	42.3	41.6	39.2	Cents	69.0	68.6	68.3
	Crude-petroleum production 15	59.5	60.6	61.3	63.3	64.8	64.8	37.87	39.00	38.88	37.9	37.7	38.6	Cents	99.9	100.2	98.1
	Public utilities:																
	Telephone and telegraph 16 17	90.2	90.3	90.4	122.4	120.9	120.9	33.20	33.76	32.66	40.0	39.8	40.2	Cents	83.3	82.7	81.8
	Electric light and power 16 17	89.6	90.5	92.0	114.2	113.7	114.6	38.78	38.23	37.90	39.7	39.6	39.9	Cents	97.2	96.1	95.2
	Street railways and busses 16 17 18	71.3	70.7	70.4	85.1	83.7	80.5	38.89	38.58	37.32	48.3	47.9	46.4	Cents	70.6	70.2	70.2
	Trade:																
Wholesale 16 19	94.0	94.3	94.9	93.9	93.7	91.8	34.91	34.72	33.88	41.3	41.2	40.9	Cents	84.7	84.6	82.8	
Retail 16 17	94.2	94.0	95.4	93.9	93.9	94.6	23.10	23.29	23.14	42.0	42.4	42.2	Cents	59.9	59.4	59.4	
Food 17	114.0	113.8	111.6	112.5	114.5	110.9	25.03	25.48	25.23	41.5	42.6	41.4	Cents	59.0	59.4	58.8	
General merchandising 16 17	104.8	103.2	105.1	105.1	104.1	105.7	19.77	19.88	19.91	38.1	38.4	38.9	Cents	50.9	50.7	50.6	
Apparel 17	92.0	85.0	85.3	92.2	86.0	87.0	23.31	23.61	23.82	37.7	38.6	38.5	Cents	61.5	61.8	62.1	
Furniture 17	71.0	72.2	74.3	73.3	72.4	72.0	31.91	31.33	30.32	44.4	44.2	43.9	Cents	77.3	74.8	71.6	
Automotive 17	63.1	67.9	75.3	65.8	69.8	76.4	31.25	30.80	30.39	48.2	48.3	47.1	Cents	64.7	63.8	65.2	
Lumber 17	71.8	72.9	76.0	76.4	77.0	79.0	29.49	29.25	28.85	42.6	42.6	42.0	Cents	70.5	70.6	70.3	
Hotels (year-round) 17 18 20	93.6	94.1	94.2	92.0	92.6	91.5	14.93	16.94	16.89	46.1	45.8	45.6	Cents	36.6	36.9	36.2	
Laundries 12	107.9	107.6	108.8	104.2	102.5	103.8	20.05	19.78	19.89	43.2	42.9	43.2	Cents	46.8	46.4	46.3	
Dyeing and cleaning 12	114.0	109.5	109.8	99.9	85.6	86.5	22.75	21.81	21.96	43.1	41.9	42.0	Cents	54.3	53.7	53.5	
Brokerage 16 17 21	-2.4	-1.8	+0.8	-2.4	-3.6	+4	40.32	40.33	41.10	(23)	(23)	(23)	Cents	(23)	(23)	(23)	
Insurance 16 21	-2	-1	+ (24)	+1	-4	+3.3	39.02	38.91	39.33	(23)	(23)	(23)	Cents	(23)	(23)	(23)	
Building construction 21	+1.8	-2.9	-12.5	+5.4	-2.0	-13.1	38.29	37.17	37.27	35.0	33.9	34.2	Cents	109.4	108.6	109.0	
Water transportation 23	76.3	76.3	74.3	+2.4	+2.6	+1	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	Cents	(23)	(23)	(23)	
Class I steam railroads 26	116.6	114.5	114.4	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	(23)	Cents	(23)	(23)	(23)	

¹ A bulletin giving averages by years, 1932 to 1940, inclusive, and by months, January 1932 to November 1941, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

² See tables 9, 10, and 11 in the December 1940 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable series back to January 1919 for all manufacturing and back to January 1923 for the durable and nondurable-goods groups.

³ See table 7 in the April 1941 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised figures from January 1940 to March 1941.

⁴ Because of changes in the composition of the reporting sample, hours and earnings are not comparable with those previously published as indicated:

Tools (not including edge tools).—Average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, average hourly earnings (comparable December 1941 figures \$34.86; 46.1 hours; 75.7 cents).

Locomotives.—Average weekly and hourly earnings (comparable December 1941 figures \$46.75 and 99.8 cents).

Marble.—Average weekly and hourly earnings (comparable December 1941 figures \$28.35 and 74.0 cents).

Carpets and rugs.—Average hourly earnings (comparable December 1941 figures \$75.9 cents).

Men's furnishings.—Average weekly earnings and average weekly hours (comparable November and December 1941 figures \$18.13 and \$16.68; 36.7 and 33.2 hours).

⁵ Revisions in the following industries and groups have been made as indicated:
Agricultural implements.—October 1941 average hours to 40.6; September, October, November, and December 1941 average hourly earnings to 91.6, 92.1, 91.7, and 92.2 cents.

Textile machinery and parts.—December 1941 average hours and hourly earnings to 48.4 hours and 78.2 cents.

Nonferrous group.—December 1941 employment and pay-roll indexes to 145.1 and 192.1; December average weekly earnings to \$36.72.

Jewelry.—December 1941 employment and pay-roll indexes to 115.0 and 119.7; average weekly earnings to \$27.85.

Furniture.—December 1941 average weekly and hourly earnings to \$26.74 and 64.1 cents.

Stone, clay, and glass products group.—December 1941 average weekly hours to 85.5, earnings to \$31.75, 33.0 hours, and 83.6 cents.

Cotton smallwares.—December 1941 average weekly earnings, average hours, and average hourly earnings to \$23.50, 41.2 hours, and 57.3 cents.

Hats, fur-felt.—December 1941 average hours and average hourly earnings to 36.1 hours and 83.6 cents.

Hosiery.—December 1941 average hours and average hourly earnings to 37.0 hours and 57.5 cents.

Shirts and collars.—December 1941 average hours and average hourly earnings to 37.3 hours and 48.7 cents.

Chemical, petroleum, and coal products group.—April to December 1941 employment indexes to 135.9, 135.9, 137.5, 140.0, 143.1, 147.6, 149.9, 149.8, and 149.7; pay-roll indexes to 158.6, 165.5, 173.6, 177.7, 181.5, 188.5, 196.2, 197.7, and 203.0.

Chemicals, other than petroleum-refining subgroup.—April to December 1941 employment indexes to 139.6, 139.3, 140.5, 143.0, 146.7, 152.3, 155.0, 154.8, and 154.7; pay-roll indexes to 163.4, 171.5, 178.8, 184.0, 188.4, 195.4, 204.9, 206.9, and 212.0.

Chemicals.—October, November, and December 1941 employment indexes to 183.8, 185.3, 185.4; pay-roll indexes to 261.4, 265.6, 271.7; average weekly earnings to \$37.66,

\$37.89, \$38.74; November and December average hourly earnings to 93.2 and 94.3 cents.

Fertilizers.—November and December 1941 employment indexes to 101.2 and 106.1; pay-roll indexes to 98.6 and 106.3; average weekly earnings to \$17.93 and \$18.28; average hourly earnings to 50.7 and 50.3 cents; November average hours to 35.4.

⁶ Included in total and group indexes, but not available for publication separately.

⁷ Adjusted on basis of a complete employment survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940. Not comparable with previously published indexes from January 1939 to August 1940, inclusive. Comparable figures for this period given in table 9 of the September 1940 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls."

⁸ The indexes for "Automobiles" have been adjusted to 1933 Census figures, but not to later Census figures because of problems involving integrated industries.

⁹ See footnote 7 in table 5 of October 1941 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in locomotives, August 1940 to July 1941, inclusive.

¹⁰ See table 8 in March 1941 "Employment and Pay Rolls" pamphlet for revised figures from January 1935 to December 1940.

¹¹ For revision of hours and earnings in aluminum manufactures and explosives see table 3.

¹² Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of pamphlet.

¹³ See table 7 of October 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940, inclusive.

¹⁴ See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised figures for metalliferous mining from January 1938 to January 1941, inclusive.

¹⁵ Does not include well-drilling or rig-building.

¹⁶ Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

¹⁷ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and public-utility indexes to 1937 Census. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Reviews prior to April 1940, with but one exception, retail furniture, which has been revised since publication of July 1940 pamphlet back to January 1936.

¹⁸ Covers street-railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

¹⁹ Indexes adjusted to 1933 Census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls."

²⁰ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

²¹ Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

²² See note 18 in table 9 in the July 1941 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised average weekly earnings in the brokerage industry from January 1939 to January 1941.

²³ Not available.

²⁴ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

²⁵ Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trades only.

²⁶ Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

TABLE

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TABLE 3.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacture of Aluminum and Explosives (Revised)

1941	Aluminum manufactures ¹		
	Average hours worked per week	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly earnings
		<i>Cents</i>	
January	41.8	77.3	\$32.30
February	42.0	77.0	32.35
March	40.0	77.4	30.96
April	41.1	76.8	31.59
May	42.1	83.7	35.20
June	39.8	83.9	33.37
July	41.7	85.7	35.75
August	42.2	85.1	35.89
September	42.2	85.7	36.17
October	42.5	85.9	36.47
November	42.6	87.2	37.13
December	44.9	88.8	39.86
	Explosives		
April	40.8	87.6	\$35.70
May	41.8	88.1	36.86
June	43.3	89.2	38.63
July	43.1	90.1	38.80
August	43.3	89.8	38.85
September	43.3	90.5	39.15
October	43.9	93.5	41.05
November	45.0	94.1	42.38
December	47.1	95.4	44.94

¹ Due to expansion of reporting firms, figures not strictly comparable with those of prior months.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in 55 Additional Manufacturing Industries

[12-month average 1939=100]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls		
	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942
Iron and steel group:						
Metal doors and shutters	137.5	138.3	140.4	202.0	198.8	200.0
Firearms	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Screw-machine products ^a	242.5	240.2	231.0	391.1	375.1	354.5
Wire drawing	138.9	139.1	139.6	181.7	180.9	185.8
Wrought pipe not made in rolling mills	161.6	159.3	155.8	242.2	229.1	217.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	143.0	142.2	141.7	219.5	215.9	195.6
Machinery group:						
Machine tool accessories	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Pumps	244.3	231.4	222.0	449.5	413.9	386.1
Refrigerators and refrigerating apparatus	112.5	112.6	109.2	152.4	149.0	138.1
Sewing machines	139.2	137.8	138.0	250.3	239.3	218.4
Washing machines, wringers, and driers	107.6	116.4	109.0	151.8	165.2	146.0
Transportation equipment group:						
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	145.7	144.6	139.3	205.2	199.6	184.6
Nonferrous metals group:						
Sheet-metal work	149.8	147.3	145.3	215.3	208.1	194.1
Smelting and refining of scrap metal	164.6	158.1	155.0	219.3	202.0	190.1
Lumber group:						
Caskets and morticians' goods	102.5	102.9	103.7	129.0	127.1	122.0
Wood preserving	116.9	114.6	115.5	163.4	158.3	151.4
Wood turned and shaped	118.6	115.8	108.2	157.7	151.6	139.7
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	125.7	126.8	126.0	176.5	173.8	160.7
Mattresses and bedsprings	118.5	115.6	115.6	152.0	141.6	141.8
Stone, clay, and glass products group:						
Abrasive wheels	197.9	195.5	195.9	277.2	264.7	268.1
Asbestos products	134.5	134.8	137.1	184.4	183.7	183.2
Lime	116.6	116.3	114.4	159.2	157.2	146.7
Gypsum	108.7	110.5	117.0	135.7	131.2	134.6
Glass products made from purchased glass	128.9	134.2	130.1	155.5	159.3	149.3
Wallboard and plaster, except gypsum	127.5	129.2	128.0	142.1	155.8	153.5

See footnotes at end of table.

1941, 1942, 1943, 1944, 1945, 1946, 1947, 1948, 1949, 1950, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1985, 1986, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 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TABLE 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in 55 Additional Manufacturing Industries—Continued

[12-month average 1939=100]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls		
	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942	Mar. 1942	Feb. 1942	Jan. 1942
Textiles:						
Textile bags.....	129.8	136.2	129.0	153.4	164.3	161.6
Cordage and twine.....	139.4	140.3	140.1	194.7	194.5	193.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	103.7	94.7	86.5	142.1	127.0	107.6
House furnishings, other.....	115.3	109.1	113.6	143.1	130.8	143.5
Jute goods, except felt.....	116.9	128.0	126.3	159.8	184.4	184.5
Handkerchiefs ¹	97.0	96.3	95.5	127.0	127.9	106.1
Leather group:						
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	108.2	106.6	101.4	138.7	139.5	138.4
Leather gloves and mittens.....	141.5	136.7	129.1	185.2	172.9	143.2
Trunks and suitcases.....	176.1	171.8	167.8	200.6	189.8	159.6
Food group:						
Cereal preparations.....	120.7	118.1	113.3	161.0	147.0	147.0
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	133.4	132.2	127.8	161.4	157.4	150.6
Feeds, prepared.....	117.9	119.7	115.1	144.4	148.0	145.3
Paper and printing group:						
Paper bags.....	130.4	131.9	130.3	172.9	172.1	169.3
Envelopes.....	117.6	120.0	120.8	135.5	136.3	135.7
Paper goods, not elsewhere classified.....	124.2	122.5	125.3	147.1	145.3	149.3
Bookbinding.....	109.2	109.5	110.4	143.3	141.9	143.7
Lithographing.....	98.1	99.0	102.6	107.9	106.1	109.1
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products:						
Ammunition.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	154.4	151.1	147.9	203.4	200.4	194.4
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	100.8	99.6	99.9	116.1	114.4	112.3
Coke-oven products.....	122.0	121.4	123.7	159.7	158.5	155.3
Paving materials.....	88.1	81.4	79.7	113.3	106.0	100.6
Roofing materials.....	123.3	119.6	114.2	150.9	148.3	135.8
Miscellaneous group:						
Chemical fire extinguishers.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Buttons.....	122.2	121.1	118.9	171.3	162.6	159.0
Instruments—professional, scientific and commercial.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Optical goods.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Photographic apparatus.....	131.0	130.5	128.3	175.7	177.0	175.4
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	108.1	114.3	116.6	127.6	133.7	133.8
Toys, games, and playground equipment.....	122.4	115.1	97.7	157.7	143.2	112.7

¹ Not available for publication separately.² Revisions of employment and pay-roll indexes in the following industries have been made as indicated:

1941	Screw machine products		Handkerchiefs	
	Employment	Pay rolls	Employment	Pay rolls
January.....	156.5	187.0	-----	-----
February.....	167.2	215.3	-----	-----
March.....	173.1	223.8	-----	-----
April.....	178.5	227.7	-----	-----
May.....	184.4	250.8	104.7	121.8
June.....	190.7	264.5	104.8	121.6
July.....	197.5	264.3	108.0	123.4
August.....	199.7	275.1	108.2	131.6
September.....	202.7	282.6	110.6	139.4
October.....	207.2	295.7	110.4	146.2
November.....	208.7	296.2	108.0	140.5
December.....	212.6	319.1	103.7	133.3

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing¹ and Non-manufacturing² Industries, March 1941 to March 1942

Industry	1941												1942		
	Av.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	
Employment															
Manufacturing															
All industries.....	127.7	119.9	122.6	124.9	127.9	130.6	133.1	135.2	135.4	134.8	134.2	132.5	133.8	135.0	
Durable goods ³	134.0	123.7	127.7	131.3	135.1	137.6	138.7	142.1	144.0	144.6	144.2	143.3	145.1	147.4	
Nondurable goods ⁴	121.6	116.3	117.8	118.8	121.1	123.9	127.7	128.7	127.3	125.4	124.8	122.1	123.0	123.2	
Nonmanufacturing															
Anthracite mining ⁵	49.7	50.2	48.7	48.6	49.2	49.3	50.0	50.0	50.3	50.2	49.1	49.0	48.8	48.5	
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	86.2	91.1	23.5	87.9	88.1	90.3	92.6	94.2	95.3	95.1	95.5	95.1	94.5	93.6	
Metalliferous mining ⁵	77.6	74.3	77.2	77.1	78.9	79.0	79.9	79.4	79.7	79.5	80.2	80.7	81.0	81.4	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	49.8	44.2	48.2	51.0	51.9	52.7	53.9	54.2	54.1	52.6	50.9	46.8	46.7	47.5	
Crude-petroleum production.....	61.0	60.2	60.1	60.3	61.5	62.1	62.2	61.8	61.6	60.9	61.1	61.3	60.6	59.5	
Telephone and telegraph ⁷	86.3	81.8	83.2	84.6	86.3	88.3	89.6	90.3	90.6	90.1	90.0	90.4	90.3	90.2	
Electric light and power ⁷	92.7	90.3	91.3	92.2	93.5	94.6	95.2	94.9	94.1	93.4	93.1	92.0	90.5	89.6	
Street railways and busses ⁷	69.3	68.2	68.3	68.9	69.1	69.5	69.7	70.3	70.3	70.2	70.6	70.4	70.7	71.3	
Wholesale trade.....	94.0	91.8	92.4	92.2	93.8	94.2	95.8	95.6	96.3	96.3	96.3	94.9	94.3	94.0	
Retail trade ⁷	98.0	92.5	97.8	96.1	97.8	96.7	96.9	100.0	101.0	103.0	113.0	95.4	94.0	94.2	
Year-round hotels ⁸	95.0	94.2	95.2	96.3	95.0	94.5	94.5	95.7	96.2	96.1	95.3	94.2	94.1	93.6	
Laundries ⁹	108.5	102.5	104.9	108.3	112.0	115.8	114.6	113.0	111.2	108.9	108.4	108.8	107.6	107.9	
Dyeing and cleaning ⁹	115.1	104.4	117.2	120.6	122.7	121.7	118.9	121.5	121.2	117.2	113.3	109.8	109.5	114.0	
Pay rolls															
Manufacturing															
All industries.....	148.8	131.2	134.7	144.1	152.2	152.7	158.1	162.6	167.0	165.4	169.9	173.5	178.3	182.9	
Durable goods ³	167.8	144.6	149.9	163.1	173.9	172.2	177.6	183.3	191.4	190.3	195.4	204.3	210.7	217.3	
Nondurable goods ⁴	127.6	116.3	117.7	122.9	127.9	130.7	136.3	139.5	139.6	137.4	141.3	139.0	142.1	144.3	
Nonmanufacturing															
Anthracite mining ⁵	41.4	42.4	24.3	33.4	51.2	34.8	51.1	49.6	49.2	41.8	35.9	39.4	49.6	51.0	
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	99.0	93.8	15.5	103.4	107.2	105.4	117.3	115.5	122.6	116.3	119.9	117.1	118.2	116.6	
Metalliferous mining ⁵	81.9	72.7	78.9	81.5	85.3	79.3	85.4	85.9	88.3	89.8	93.7	94.3	98.4	98.8	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	51.8	40.3	47.0	53.2	55.7	55.5	59.3	60.5	61.5	57.5	55.8	48.9	52.0	54.3	
Crude-petroleum production.....	60.5	56.1	57.8	58.6	59.9	61.4	61.5	64.4	64.4	64.2	64.6	64.8	64.8	63.3	
Telephone and telegraph ⁷	112.7	106.4	107.3	110.5	113.0	115.7	116.4	117.3	117.0	118.3	122.9	120.9	120.9	122.4	
Electric light and power ⁷	111.2	106.1	107.6	109.6	111.4	113.5	115.1	115.0	115.7	115.2	115.2	114.6	113.7	114.2	
Street railways and busses ⁷	75.4	72.5	72.0	72.7	76.2	75.8	78.6	78.1	78.4	78.5	80.0	80.5	83.7	85.1	
Wholesale trade.....	87.1	82.0	83.4	84.6	88.4	88.0	89.8	90.9	92.0	91.6	92.8	91.8	93.7	93.9	
Retail trade ⁷	93.4	86.2	91.7	91.5	95.2	94.0	94.0	95.8	97.3	98.5	107.8	94.6	93.9	93.9	
Year-round hotels ⁸	88.5	85.7	87.1	87.9	87.4	87.6	88.2	90.0	91.9	93.2	93.3	91.5	92.6	92.0	
Laundries ⁹	99.3	90.9	95.8	98.7	102.5	106.7	104.7	105.2	103.4	101.9	102.6	103.8	102.5	104.2	
Dyeing and cleaning ⁹	90.4	77.2	97.8	96.1	98.4	96.4	92.1	99.5	98.5	93.0	88.6	86.5	85.6	92.9	

¹ 3-year average 1923-25=100—adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See tables 9, 10, and 11 of December 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable figures back to January 1919 for "all manufacturing" and January 1923 for "durable goods" and "nondurable goods."

² 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls" or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5, 6, and 7.

³ Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

⁴ Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

⁵ Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 Census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet. See also table 7 of October 1940 pamphlet for revised figures for anthracite mining, February to September 1940.

⁶ See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised indexes January 1938 to January 1941.

⁷ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and public utility indexes to 1937 Census. Not comparable with indexes published in "Employment and Pay Rolls" pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.

⁸ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

⁹ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

POTENTIAL LABOR SUPPLY IN THE UNITED STATES

A LITTLE over 13,000,000 nonworkers were available for full or half-time jobs in March 1942 according to returns from a survey of the potential labor supply in the United States conducted by the Work Projects Administration.¹ This labor reserve consisted of persons 14 years of age or older who were not in the labor market at the time of the survey, but who said they could take a job for wages if one were available within their community during the next 30 days. More than half of the total—7,600,000 persons—indicated that they were available for full-time employment. The remaining 5,700,000 said they could not take a full-time job but reported that they could take a half-time job (of 20 hours or less a week).

The largest source of potential workers who could take a full-time job was the housewife or homemaker group which numbered 6,500,000 persons out of the total 7,600,000. Another one-half million were students, while the remainder (600,000) considered themselves unable or too old to work under ordinary circumstances, but indicated that they could take a full-time job under the current war production program.

The labor reserve of persons capable of taking full-time jobs consisted of 7,000,000 women and only 600,000 men. Moreover, more than one-half of these women were in the highly employable age range of 20 to 44 years; very few men in the full-time labor reserve were in this age range.

The 5,700,000 nonworkers who could take only half-time jobs were almost equally divided between homemakers and students. Because of the large number of students in this group, their characteristics were markedly different from those in the full-time labor reserve. Thus, more than one-fourth of the half-time potential consisted of males, while almost one-half were in the young age group between 14 and 19 years.

The total number of persons saying that they could take a full or half-time job was equal to about one-fourth of the present active labor force. It must be pointed out, however, that many of the characteristics of this potential labor supply indicate that a great deal remains to be done before it can be assimilated into the war production program. Thus, only a little over one-third of the nonworkers capable of taking full-time jobs had worked within the past 5 years. Over one-fourth, in fact, had never held a private or regular Government job lasting 3 consecutive days or more. Of those who had been previously employed and reported themselves available for full-time employment, fewer than 100,000 had worked at a skilled trade on their last job. A full-scale training and retraining program therefore must accompany any attempt to utilize the potential labor supply in the United States.

There are other factors which serve to lessen the labor reserve's availability for employment. War production activities are not distributed uniformly throughout the country and this creates the problem of bringing the potential worker and the job together. In addition, many heavy industries cannot use women, who form such a large part of the labor reserve. Effective use of the potential labor supply may therefore necessitate shifting men into essential operations and replacing them with qualified women.

¹ Federal Works Agency. Work Projects Administration. Special Memorandum No. 10: Monthly Report of Unemployment April 22, 1942.

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UNEMPLOYMENT IN MAY 1942

THE number of unemployed persons in the United States declined by 000,000 between April and May 1942, according to returns from the WPA Sample Monthly Report of Unemployment. Employment increased by 000,000, and the size of the labor force was reported as 000,000 higher.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment, by Months, April 1940–April 1942

Month	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	1942			1941			1940		
	Labor force	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed ¹	Labor force	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed ¹	Labor force	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed ¹
January.....	52.4	48.2	4.2	52.8	45.2	7.6	(²)	(²)	(²)
February.....	52.6	48.6	4.0	52.7	45.5	7.2	(²)	(²)	(²)
March.....	54.0	50.4	3.6	52.4	45.6	6.8	(²)	(²)	(²)
April.....	53.4	50.4	3.0	53.3	46.7	6.6	53.9	45.1	8.8
May.....	53.5	50.9	2.6	54.0	48.3	5.7	54.7	46.3	8.4
June.....				55.7	49.8	5.9	56.3	47.7	8.6
July.....				56.0	50.4	5.6	57.0	47.7	9.3
August.....				55.8	50.5	5.3	56.7	47.8	8.9
September.....				54.3	49.8	4.5	55.2	48.1	7.1
October.....				53.5	49.6	3.9	54.8	47.4	7.4
November.....				53.3	49.4	3.9	53.9	46.3	7.6
December.....				53.3	49.5	3.8	53.2	46.1	7.1

¹ Includes persons on public emergency work projects.² Not available.TABLE 2.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment, by Age Groups, February–April 1941 and February–April 1942¹

Age and labor market status	1942			1941			Increase or de- crease, April 1941- April 1942
	April	March	Febru- ary	April	March	Febru- ary	
	Estimated number (millions of persons)						
All age groups:							
Labor force.....	53.4	54.0	52.6	53.3	52.4	52.7	+0.1
Employed.....	50.4	50.4	48.6	46.7	45.6	45.5	+3.7
Unemployed.....	3.0	3.6	4.0	6.6	6.8	7.2	-3.6
Age 14-24 years:							
Labor force.....	11.0	11.2	10.7	11.8	11.0	11.1	-.8
Employed.....	10.2	10.2	9.6	9.6	8.7	8.7	+.6
Unemployed.....	.8	1.0	1.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	-1.4
Age 25-54 years:							
Labor force.....	33.7	34.2	33.6	33.0	33.2	33.3	+.7
Employed.....	32.2	32.4	31.5	29.7	29.8	29.7	+2.5
Unemployed.....	1.5	1.8	2.1	3.3	3.4	3.6	-1.8
Age 55 years and over:							
Labor force.....	8.7	8.6	8.3	8.5	8.2	8.3	+.2
Employed.....	8.0	7.8	7.5	7.4	7.1	7.1	+.6
Unemployed.....	.7	.8	.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	-.4
	Unemployment rate ² (percent)						
All age groups.....	5.6	6.7	7.5	12.4	13.0	13.6	-6.8
14-24 years.....	7.1	9.1	10.4	18.7	20.8	21.9	-11.6
25-54 years.....	4.6	5.4	6.1	10.1	10.2	10.7	-5.5
55 years and over.....	7.7	9.0	9.4	13.3	13.8	14.2	-5.6
	Percentage distribution of unemployed						
All age groups.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0
14-24 years.....	26.1	28.1	28.1	33.2	33.4	34.1	-6.1
25-54 years.....	51.9	50.6	52.1	49.9	49.9	49.6	+2.0
55 years and over.....	22.0	21.3	19.8	16.9	16.7	16.3	+5.7

¹ All data exclude persons in institutions. Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed.² Unemployed as a percent of labor force in each age group.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

JUNE 1942

Child Labor and Child Welfare

Child labor and the war emergency. By Beatrice McConnell, U. S. Children's Bureau. (In Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Magazine, New York, March 1942, pp. 413-418.)

Children bear the promise of a better world: Are we safeguarding those whose mothers work? Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, [1942]. 10 pp. (Defense of children series, No. 2.)

The Children's Bureau today. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, February 1942. 20 pp.

Tells of the origin, growth, and work of this Government agency and its co-operative relationships.

The American newspaper boy—a comparative study of his work and school activities. By Henry Bonner McDaniel. Los Angeles, Wetzel Publishing Co., Inc., 1941. 139 pp., bibliography.

In the daily distribution of 39,000,000 newspapers, 350,000 boys are involved, the great majority of them being in the 14 to 17 age group. In this connection they work from 1 to 2 hours per day, and earn on an average from \$4.00 to \$5.00 per week.

Progress in child welfare in the American Republics. By Anna Kalet Smith. (In The Child, U. S. Children's Bureau, Washington, April 1942, pp. 256-263.)

A summary of developments in certain Latin American Republics since 1935 in the field of child welfare, with regard to coordination of child-welfare work, nutrition, and social insurance (including sickness and maternity insurance).

Civil defense measures for protection of children—report of observations in Great Britain, February 1941. By Martha M. Eliot, M. D. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1942. 186 pp., bibliography, illus. (Bureau publication No. 279.)

Covers protection of children under bombardment, and the effects of the war and protective measures with particular reference to evacuation. Conclusions are drawn and recommendations made. An appendix deals with women's voluntary services.

Cost and Standards of Living and Prices

Money disbursements of wage earners and clerical workers in thirteen small cities, 1933-35. By Faith M. Williams and Gertrude Schmidt Weiss. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1942. 173 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 691.)

Analysis of wage earner and rural automobile use. Detroit, Automobile Manufacturers Association, [1941?]. 15 pp., charts.

Supplement to "A factual survey of automobile usage," issued by the Automobile Manufacturers Association.

Food consumption studies in Puerto Rico. By S. L. Descartes, S. Diaz Pacheco, and J. R. Noguera. Rio Piedras, P. R., University of Puerto Rico, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 76 pp., charts, illus. (Bull. No. 59.)

The report covers a study of the food consumption of 2,645 families in San Juan in 1937, a similar survey in 1938 of about 1,900 families distributed among 22 towns throughout the Island, and a survey of 439 families in four municipalities in rural areas in 1939.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.

La acción de la mujer en el mejoramiento agrario argentino. By Tomás Amadeo. (In Boletín del Museo Social Argentino, Buenos Aires, January-February 1942, pp. 3-33; illus.)

An examination of the living conditions of rural families in Argentina with respect to housing, clothing, food, etc., followed by an account of public and private schools established to train woman social workers to deal with rural problems, and a statement of present activities in this field.

Emergency Price Control Act [United States] of 1942. By John M. Blair. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, March 1942, pp. 1-5.)

Price control in Canada. By Kenneth R. Wilson. Ottawa, Wartime Prices and Trade Board, 1941. 40 pp., chart. (Booklet No. 1.)

Economic and Social Problems

The economics of total war. By Henry William Spiegel. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1942. 410 pp., bibliography. (Century studies in economics.)

The first chapter is a discussion of the economic motives and situations back of the war, and the last chapter describes the probable economic effects. The main part of the volume deals with the economic weapons or means of carrying on the war. The study is international in scope, with emphasis on American war economy. The chapters of most immediate labor interest are on "Manpower requirements for total war", "Labor problems in wartime", and "Wartime control of production and consumption."

Essential facts for fiscal policy. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1941. 135 pp., charts.

One of the sections of this study is entitled "Individual resources and needs." Estimates are made of expenditures at different income levels, the expenditures being classified to show the amounts at the "practical minimum level" and at the "efficiency level," all expenditures above the "efficiency level" (minimum income of \$1,500) being described as "optional expenditures." The analysis is made for the year 1937 when, according to the estimates, the "optional expenditures" totaled \$11,139,000,000. This and other sections of the study are interpreted as throwing light on fiscal problems connected particularly with the necessity for curtailing civilian consumption in the interest of war production.

The road we are traveling, 1914-1942. By Stuart Chase. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1942. 106 pp.

After a rapid survey of the background of the nation's economy since 1914, the author sets forth a post-war program for achieving full employment; full and prudent use of materials and resources; a guarantee of minimum standards of foods, housing, clothing, health services, and education; a social-insurance system that includes benefits for old age, unemployment, sickness, and accidents; and the maintenance of labor standards in every branch of employment. In answer to the question as to where the money is coming from, he states that it "will come from the same place that the bombers, tanks, and battleships are now coming from—out of the full employment of the people."

The strength of nations: A study in social theory. By George Soule. New York, Macmillan Co., 1942. 268 pp., bibliography.

The author discusses economic ideas and institutions in the light of recent advances in scientific knowledge, especially in the fields of psychology and psychiatry. In a chapter on "New views of our economic habits" he includes a discussion of collective bargaining and strikes, in which the problems of industrial relations are described in terms that are characteristic of the author's general point of view. Industrial conflict, he states, is not primarily caused by disagreement over wages, but rather by the fact that employers frequently think of workers as merely a part of their establishments or perhaps maintain a paternalistic attitude, while the workers "develop a similar sense of possession of their skills, their jobs and the tools or machinery with which they work."

Virginia's marginal population: A study in rural poverty. By William Edward Garnett and Allen David Edwards. Blacksburg, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 166 pp., charts, illus. (Bull. 335.)

It is stated that about 100,000 white families, or between one-third and one-half of the white rural population of Virginia, and a still larger proportion of the Negroes, even in normal times, may be classed as marginal. The term "marginal population" as used in this study refers to people on a bare subsistence plane of living. A gross family income of less than \$600 a year exclusive of rent was used as a basis for classifying the farm population, and a gross income of less than \$750 was used for classifying the rural nonfarm population, the study applying only to rural classes. The authors describe the extent, composition, and location of the marginal population, discuss the contributing factors, point to the disproportionate increase of this group of the population, and mention certain corrective measures.

Education and Training

Annual report of United States Commissioner of Education, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1941. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1942. 120 pp.

Included in the report are sections on training of workers for national defense, vocational-education and vocational-rehabilitation services, and the training program of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Training for war industry—bulletins for employers: No. 1, Pre-employment training centers; No. 2, Apprenticeship training; No. 3, Plant schools. Ottawa, Department of Labor of Canada, 1941 and 1942. 7, 16, and 15 pp.

Training workers and supervisors for war production. By Mary Anderson, Margaret G. Bondfield, and others. New York, American Management Association, 1942. 40 pp. (Personnel series No. 56.)

The subjects covered in the pamphlet include women's jobs in war production in the United States and in England, the supervisory problem in the aircraft industry, and industrial and military manpower problems.

Work experience in education. Edited by Warren C. Seyfert and Paul A. Rehmus. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, 1941. 65 pp. (Harvard workshop series, No. 2.)

One of the results of a cooperative pioneering enterprise of the National Youth Administration, the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and practicing school administrators from the New England States and New York State.

Workers' education in the United States. Edited by Theodore Bramfeld. New York, Harper & Bros., 1941. 338 pp., bibliography.

A survey by different writers of the origins, scope, and potentialities of the workers' education movement in the United States.

Housing

Defense housing—a bibliography. Los Angeles, Municipal Reference Library, 1941. 11 pp.; mimeographed.

Entries are classified by subject.

Housing program for victory. By Dana Doten. (In Social Action, Council for Social Action of Congregational Christian Churches, New York, March 15, 1942, pp. 3-26; illus.)

Describes the magnitude of the war housing problem and the challenge that will follow in housing the population at the end of hostilities.

A survey of apartment dwelling operating experience in large American cities. Washington, Federal Housing Administration, 1940. 139 pp., map, charts. Covers experience in 1935 and earlier years.

The first five years. New York, Citizens' Housing Council of New York, Inc., 1942. 23 pp.

Reviews the change in attitude toward proper housing for families of low income in New York City, and the place of all population groups in assuring suitable accommodations.

Housing in Canada (a study based on the census of 1931 and supplementary data). By Harold F. Greenway. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 174 pp., charts. (Census monograph No. 8.)

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Safety in the building industry of the United States. By Swen Kjaer. (In *Industrial Safety Survey*, International Labor Office, Montreal, January-March 1942, pp. 1-13; illus.)

The author, formerly chief of the Industrial Accident Division, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, discusses safety promotion by employers, workers, insurance carriers, and Federal and State agencies. Some statistics of accidents and compensation cost in the construction industry are included.

Coal-mine accidents in the United States, 1939. By W. W. Adams, L. E. Geyer, M. G. Parry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1942. 123 pp. (Bull. No. 444.)

Preventing fatal explosions in coal mines. By Edward A. Wieck. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1942. 156 pp.

Analysis of the causes of recent major coal-mining disasters in the United States, and preventive measures suggested as a result of the unsafe practices disclosed in the analysis of these accidents.

Coke-oven accidents in the United States during calendar year 1940. By W. W. Adams and V. E. Wrenn. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1941. 19 pp., chart. (Technical paper No. 640.)

Industrial Relations

The dynamics of industrial democracy. By Clinton S. Golden and Harold J. Ruttenberg. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1942. xxvi, 358 pp.

Two officials of the Steel Workers Organizing Committee, on the basis of their experience, tell of the improvement in labor relations in the steel industry after force and misunderstanding have been replaced by negotiation and genuine attempts by employers and workers to see each other's point of view.

Local progress in labor peace. By William L. Nunn. New York, National Municipal League, 1941. 27 pp.

This pamphlet brings together three articles originally published in the *National Municipal Review*. One deals with the work of the Toledo (Ohio) Industrial Peace Board, and another with that of the Newark Labor Relations Board, in settling labor disputes. The third article summarizes information, obtained by questionnaire, on policies followed by 69 city governments in dealing with labor problems.

Maintaining employee morale in wartime. By W. W. Finlay and others. New York, American Management Association, 1942. 40 pp. (Personnel series No. 55.)

Different methods of promoting employee morale are discussed in the five papers included in the pamphlet.

Wage incentive plans and collective bargaining. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, April 1942. 17 pp.; multilithed. (Industrial relations problems arising under war production, memorandum No. 2.)

Collective bargaining in Canada: An examination of the legislative record and policy of the Government of the Dominion of Canada. By J. L. Cohen. Toronto, Steel Workers Organizing Committee, [1941]. 93 pp.

The A-B-C's of British labor policy. (In *Business Week*, New York, April 4, 1942, pp. 46, 48, et seq.)

A series of questions and answers regarding the way in which Great Britain has handled labor problems during the war. The information was furnished by *Business Week's* London bureau.

Industry Reports

Seven stranded coal towns: A study of an American depressed area. By Malcolm Brown and John N. Webb. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, Division of Research, 1941. xxvi, 188 pp., charts, illus. (Research monograph XXIII.)

Data on unemployment from a preliminary report of this survey were published in the *Monthly Labor Review* for December 1939 (p. 1295).

Statistics of electric utilities in the United States, 1940—Classes A and B, privately-owned companies. Washington, Federal Power Commission, [1941?]. 706 pp. This volume makes readily available uniform and detailed statements of operating revenues, operating expenses, and classification of utility plant and related data on physical characteristics of each of the 380 major electric-utility companies in the country.

Supplement to interdepartmental report on Douglas fir lumber industry. Washington, U. S. Office of Production Management, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1941. 80 pp., charts.

A study prepared for a commission appointed by the National Defense Mediation Board. The original study, prepared by the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense, was summarized in the October 1941 Monthly Labor Review (p. 849). The parts relating to employment, pay rolls, earnings, prices, and productivity were prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The rubber industry. By Josephine Perry. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1941. 96 pp., illus.

Simplified account of the sources of rubber and of the processes of collecting raw rubber and manufacturing rubber products. One of the 12 chapters is devoted to rubber substitutes.

The silk industry of China. By D. K. Lieu. Shanghai, Kelly & Walsh, Ltd., 1940. xviii, 266 pp., charts.

The volume contains three separate studies covering, respectively, several sericulture districts, and silk filatures and the silk-weaving industry, principally of Shanghai. The studies were sponsored by the China Institute of Economic and Statistical Research. They include information on working and living conditions, and on number of workers, wages, and working hours in silk filatures and in silk weaving, at different dates from 1928 to 1934.

International Labor Conditions

Conference of International Labor Organization, 1941, New York and Washington, D. C.—record of proceedings. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1941. 201 pp.

The resolutions adopted at the New York meeting were published in the Monthly Labor Review for December 1941 (p. 1448).

International labor conventions, their interpretation and revision. By Conley Hall Dillon. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1942. 272 pp.

A study of the methods followed by the International Labor Organization in framing and adopting international labor conventions, and of their interpretation and revision.

Program of the International Labor Organization. By Carter Goodrich. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1942. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 1436, reprint from February 1942 Monthly Labor Review.)

Towards our true inheritance: The reconstruction work of the I. L. O. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1942. 77 pp.

Report of the Acting Director of the International Labor Office on the ILO and reconstruction, to the conference of the International Labor Organization held in New York in October 1941, debate at the conference, and resolutions adopted.

Yearbook of labor statistics, 1941. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1942. 203 pp.

The statistics for the different countries cover population, employment and unemployment, wages and hours, cost of living and retail prices, family budgets, migration, and industrial accidents.

!Labor and Social Legislation

The law of government defense contracts. By Theodore Wesley Graske. New York, Baker, Voorhis & Co., 1941. 402 pp.

One section of the volume is devoted to labor provisions of the legislation concerning defense contracts let by the United States Government.

Legislación Boliviana del trabajo y de la previsión social. Compiled by Gastón Arduz Egufá. La Paz, Imprenta "Eléctrica," 1941. 454 pp.

An officially approved compilation of Bolivian legislation relating to labor and social welfare, enacted from 1896 through 1940, with a topical index.

El derecho del trabajo en la novísima constitución del Paraguay. By Luis P. Frescura. (In *Derecho del Trabajo*, Buenos Aires, January 1942, pp. 7-10.)

Brief history of labor legislation in Paraguay, followed by quotations or summaries of labor and social-welfare provisions in the Paraguayan constitution which was promulgated July 10, 1940.

The French labor charter. (In *International Labor Review*, Montreal, March 1942, pp. 269-285.)

The provisions of the charter were summarized in the February 1942 *Monthly Labor Review* (pp. 397-403).

A survey of Soviet labor legislation. By Paul Haensel. (In *Illinois Law Review*, Chicago, January 1942, pp. 529-544.)

Labor Organization and Activities

Recent developments among farm labor unions. By Harry Schwartz. (In *Journal of Farm Economics*, Menasha, Wis., November 1941, pp. 833-842.)

Teamsters and transportation: Employee-employer relationships in New England. By Samuel E. Hill. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. 248 pp., bibliography.

Although primarily concerned with the growth of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen, and Helpers in the New England trucking area, the author also discusses in detail many of the problems and policies of the international union as they relate to the trucking industry.

Wages and trades unions. By Franz Oppenheimer. (In *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, New York, October 1941, pp. 45-77.)

A discussion of landownership and its effect on the migration of farm labor to industrial centers, and of the effects of the pressure of rural labor supply on industrial wages and on the functions of labor organizations. The author accepts the purposes of labor unions but criticizes the methods used.

Company unions under the National Labor Relations Act. By Burton Crager. (In *Michigan Law Review*, Ann Arbor, April 1942, pp. 831-855.)

Forty-seventh annual report of the Irish Trade Union Congress. Dublin, National Executive of the Irish Trade Union Congress, 1942. 179 pp.

Report of the national executive for 1940-41 and the proceedings of the forty-seventh annual meeting held July 16-18, 1941.

Negro in Industry

Negro workers and the national defense program. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, 1941. 21 pp.; processed.

The use of colored persons in skilled occupations. By Wm. Barnes O'Connor. (In *Management Record*, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, December 1941, pp. 156-158.)

Shows extent of use of colored persons in skilled occupations in 402 companies, and discusses the reasons why they are not used more extensively in skilled and semiskilled occupations.

Color, class and personality. Prepared for American Youth Commission by Robert L. Sutherland. Washington, American Council on Education, 1942. 135 pp., illus.

This volume summarizes the principal findings of a series of extensive studies of the problems of Negro young people, conducted by the American Youth Commission. The author also interprets those findings which have the most direct bearing upon programs for the improvement of the status of Negro youth.

Shop and class at Tuskegee: A definitive study of the Tuskegee correlation technique, 1910-1930. By J. L. Whiting. Boston, Chapman & Grimes, Inc., 1941. 114 pp., map, illus.

Through the presentation of real student-life situations the author shows the development of Booker T. Washington's scheme of correlation of shop and class instruction at the Institute.

Planning

A handbook on urban redevelopment for cities in the United States. Washington, Federal Housing Administration, 1941. 105 pp.

Suggests certain powers and procedures, and an integrated long-term program, for dealing with slums and blighted urban areas.

National planning in selected countries. By Lewis L. Lorwin. Washington, U. S. National Resources Planning Board, 1941. 173 pp. (Technical paper No. 2.)

More than half of the volume deals with Germany. One chapter discusses public works and public planning in Germany from 1933 to 1939, and another chapter deals with wartime planning in Germany. It is stated that the German Government is carrying on vast changes such as the shifting of populations before the war ends in preparation for continued German domination after the war. It is this feature of German planning that makes it imperative for democratic countries to take preparatory steps for meeting post-war problems in a free and rational spirit. National planning in Sweden is described in the third part and in Latin America in the fourth part of the volume.

Replanning Britain. Edited by F. E. Towndrow. London, Faber & Faber, Ltd., 1941. 173 pp.

Summary report of the Oxford conference of the Town and Country Planning Association in the spring of 1941.

Start planning Britain now—a policy for reconstruction. By Ritchie Calder. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd., 1941. 63 pp. (Democratic order, No. 5.)

Details of a plan dealing with physical (housing, etc.) and social needs.

Town and country planning—a study of physical environment: The prelude to post-war reconstruction. By Gilbert McAllister and Elizabeth Glen McAllister. London, Faber & Faber, Ltd., 1941. xxxii, 176 pp., illus.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Our public works experience. Washington, U. S. National Resources Planning Board, 1941. 36 pp., charts.

Summary of a larger study of the effects on employment and business activity of 6 years of Federal expenditures on public works, designed to facilitate economic recovery. The period covered is 1933–38.

Summary of relief and Federal work program statistics, 1933–40. By Theodore E. Whiting and T. J. Woofert, Jr. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1941. 64 pp., charts.

The trends and volume of public relief and Federal work-program recipients and of payments to the recipients are analyzed for the period beginning near the bottom of the depression of the early thirties through December 1940.

A history of poor relief legislation and administration in Missouri. By Fern Boan. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1941. 243 pp. (Social service monograph.)

Contains data on almshouses, the blind, recipients of and amount paid out for old-age assistance, and aid to dependent children.

Report on relief. Prepared for General Assembly of Commonwealth of Pennsylvania by Joint State Government Commission of General Assembly. Harrisburg, 1941. Various paging, charts; mimeographed.

The volume presents a general picture of various factors entering into the administration of relief in Pennsylvania, including a brief history of poor relief in the State; recommendations of the investigating commission; and a report on relief in Pennsylvania as compared with other States.

Social Security

Second annual report of Federal Security Agency [for fiscal year ended June 30], 1941. Washington, 1941. 108 pp.

Reviews the work of the Civilian Conservation Corps, National Youth Administration, Office of Education, Public Health Service, Social Security Board, and other offices in the Agency. An appendix contains statistical tabulations of personnel, expenditures, and accomplishments.

Sixth annual report of Social Security Board, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1941; with supplementary data, July 1-October 31, 1941. Washington, 1941. 216 pp., charts.

General review of the social-security program in the sixth year of its operation, and details of the operation of the old-age and survivors insurance, employment security, and public-assistance programs. Sections are devoted to administrative organization and planning. The statistical tables show the numbers covered by the different systems, numbers receiving benefits, and finances.

Social security in wartime and after. Statement and recommendations by 68 of the Nation's leading experts and students of the problem. New York, American Association for Social Security, 1942. 47 pp.

The recommendations of the committee considering measures to avoid a post-war depression included extension and expansion of the existing social-insurance systems and public assistance, provision of a flexible public-work program, and retraining and transference of workers.

Ordenanzas y reglamentos en vigor [Caja Municipal de Previsión Social, Municipalidad de la Ciudad de Buenos Aires]. Buenos Aires, Caja Municipal de Previsión Social, 1940. 154 pp.

The basic ordinance (1934) of the Municipal Social Welfare Fund for city employees of Buenos Aires, with subsequent regulations, including provisions concerning contributions, investment of funds, benefits, etc., in case of old age, invalidity, dismissal, and voluntary retirement; official explanations and comments on the system; tables showing accumulation of benefits; and form used in connection with the business of the Fund.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

Organizing for total war. Edited by Francis J. Brown. Philadelphia, American Academy of Political and Social Science, March 1942. 287 pp. (The Annals, Vol. 220.)

One of the contributions of special labor interest, "Some problems of organized labor in a war economy," discusses the critical public attitudes toward labor and suggests measures that might be undertaken by labor organizations to improve their public relations. Another contribution, "Re-employment and postwar planning," describes the experiences of England, Germany, and the United States after the first World War, outlines the problems to be faced by the United States at the end of the present war, and emphasizes the need for working out postwar plans before the end of the war. A third contribution, "Purpose of America," emphasizes the importance of clarifying our peace aims until they are "gradually freed of abstraction and vagueness" and "brought into close agreement with the language and the instincts of our people."

Protection of plant and personnel. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1942. 16 pp. (Management research memorandum No. 9.)

Papers dealing with civilian defense measures in Great Britain and outlining potential dangers from bombardment, spies, and saboteurs in the United States and means for coping with them.

Shift practice in war industry. By Harold F. Browne. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1942. 20 pp., charts. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 40.)

Summary of the results of a survey by the National Industrial Conference Board of practices reported by 185 companies. Information is given regarding premium rates for overtime work and for work on Saturdays and Sundays (the material being obtained before the union agreements to waive penalty wage rates for work on Saturdays and Sundays), and regarding shift rotation, shift schedules, and hours of work. Detailed tabulations are given showing typical arrangements of crews both in continuous-process plants and in plants not operating continuously.

Official defense publications—guide to State and Federal publications [United States]. Compiled by Jerome K. Wilcox. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, September 1941. 106 pp.; mimeographed.

Includes many references on labor matters and such subjects of labor interest as economic problems, health, housing, training, and prices.

Australian labor at war. By Albert E. Monk. (In American Federationist, Washington, March 1942, pp. 3-5, 23; illus.)

Describes the economic and social sides of Australian life and the part of labor in the war effort.

Women in Industry

Women's role in war production. By Mary Anderson, Director, U. S. Women's Bureau. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, April 1942, pp. 1-4.)

Arms and the woman. By Beulah Amidon. (In Survey Graphic, New York, May 1942, pp. 244-248, 271.)

Brings together information on the present participation of women in war production, the anticipated need for woman labor, the potential supply of woman workers, jobs that are being or can be filled by women, job training for women, women's wages and hours in war industries, and provision for care of children of employed mothers.

Women as war labor reserves. By M. R. Gainsbrugh and I. J. White. (In Conference Board Economic Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, February 1942, pp. 47-50.)

Presents data on the number of women in war industries during the first World War and in 1941, the potential woman-labor supply, and British and German experience.

Women in factory work. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1942. 52 pp., illus. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 41.)

Information for the use of executives who are planning to employ women for factory work formerly performed by men. It covers types of work women can and cannot do, recruitment, selection, orientation, training, supervision, compensation, absenteeism, hours of work and fatigue, clothing, suggested structural alterations for benefit of woman workers, and the problem of mixed sexes.

Women's contributions in wartime—a list of references to recent material. Compiled by Helen Ellis Wheeler. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, [1942]. 7 pp.; mimeographed.

The employment of women in Canadian gun and rifle factories, January 1942. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1942. 13 pp.; mimeographed.

A discussion of the operations performed by woman workers.

Youth Problems

Youth and the future: The general report of the American Youth Commission. Washington, American Council on Education, 1942. xix, 296 pp.

Presents a program in behalf of youth, based on past experience but adjusted to the stern actualities of the present and, in the words of the chairman of the Commission, "adequate to foreseeable needs of the future."

Youth at work. A manual containing descriptions of a number of selected National Youth Administration projects for in- and out-of-school youth. Compiled and edited by Paul B. Jacobson. Washington, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1941. 176 pp., illus. (Bulletin, Vol. 25, No. 99.)

School-leaving youth and employment: Some factors associated with duration of early employment of youth whose formal education ended at high-school graduation or earlier. By C. Darl Long. New York, Columbia University, Teachers College, 1941. 84 pp., bibliography.

Massachusetts youth study: A report relating to education and employment of the youth of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. Boston, Massachusetts Department of Education, 1941. 312 pp.

Questions discussed in this report include: How do youth earn a living? How are youth now being prepared to earn a living? How should youth be prepared to earn a living? What is the demand for higher education? How is the demand for higher education to be met? How can the local community help youth?

Youth adjustments in a rural culture—Rockville Community, Hanover County, Virginia. By Dorothy G. Jones. Blacksburg, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 68 pp., bibliography, maps, charts; processed. (Rural sociology report No. 16, Virginia rural youth survey No. 4.)

General Reports

Production, employment, and pay rolls [in the United States] in 1941. By Nelson M. Bortz. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, March 1942, pp. 8-13; charts.)

Africa—a social, economic and political geography of its major regions. By Walter Fitzgerald. London, Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1940. 499 pp., maps, bibliographies.

The subject is treated by regions.

A selected list of references on Australia. Compiled by Grace Hadley Fuller. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, April 1942. 101 pp.; mimeographed.

Economic, social, and labor conditions are among the topics covered. Older standard works as well as current literature are included.

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Frances Perkins, *Secretary*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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